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VOL. XXXVIII.—NO. 977.

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Contents of No. 748, February 28: The German Cholera Commission.—Schopenbauer: by Prof. Andrew Seth.—Our Book-Shelf.—Letters to the Editor.—Zoological Results of the Work of the United States Fish Commission in 1883: by Ralph S. Tarr.—African Spiders.—Mr. Burnham's Double Star Measures.—Measuring the Aurora Borealis: by Dr. Sophus Tromholt.—Count du Moncal.—Notes.—Our Astronomical Column.—Geographical Notes, &c., &c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 20, 1884.

The Week.

THE only important event of a business character during the past week has been the action of the Trunk Line Pool in reducing rates on grain and provisions, from Chicago and other Western points to the Atlantic seaboard, ten cents per hundred pounds. This is the last remedy in the hands of the pool managers against the cutting of rates. It is also the first application of the remedy made since the present pool went into operation. If vigorously followed up it will undoubtedly accomplish the object in view. It will reduce railroad earnings as a matter of course, but much less than a general war of rates, which is the only alternative, would reduce them. The effects of the reduction on general trade remain to be seen. They ought to be beneficial, by way of putting some life into our sluggish export trade in grain and provisions. Gold shipments have practically ceased, only \$200,000 having been sent out during the week. It would be premature, however, to say that we shall lose no more, although the reduction in grain rates from the West, taken in conjunction with the lowering of the discount rate by the Bank of England, seems altogether likely to keep sterling exchange below the gold-exporting point. The movement of general merchandise has not improved materially, but prices of dry goods have been well sustained. The same may be said of the iron trade. The advance in pig iron established a few weeks ago is maintained, but sales are light. There is no activity in any branch of the trade. Railway earnings for February, as compiled by the *Financial Chronicle* for sixty roads, show a small gain. Business in the Stock Exchange is still confined to large speculators and their following of room traders. All attempts to lure the public into the market seem to have been definitively abandoned.

The dinner of the Free-Trade Club on Saturday evening was the most notable gathering in the interest of tariff reform that has taken place in this country since the close of the war. It was notable in the character of those who were present and took the leading parts, but more especially in the spirit of the proceedings. Those who have been in the habit of attending such meetings from time to time during the past fifteen or twenty years could not fail to observe an invigorating atmospheric influence quite unusual in their former experience, betokening a general conviction that some step is about to be taken toward freer trade with the world. The most significant and important speech of the evening was that of the Speaker of the House of Representatives, whose words were, of course, weighted by the responsibilities of his position. Mr. Carlisle did not employ any equivocal phrases. He left nobody in doubt as to his beliefs, intentions, desires. There must be a change in the policy of the country; there

must be a reduction of duties, a relaxation of the restrictions hitherto imposed upon foreign trade. The measures taken to effect this change must have due regard to investments already made in particular branches of industry, but these branches of industry must put themselves in shape to meet the change, for there can be no step backward. A foreign outlet for our surplus products, both agricultural and manufacturing, must be found. Tariff taxes are an obstacle to foreign trade; they are designed for that purpose, and they accomplish it to a large extent. They must be removed—decently and in order, but they must be removed. This is what Mr. Carlisle's election as Speaker betokened, and he did not belittle its significance in the smallest degree. It was refreshing, as another speaker remarked, to listen to a man in high political station about whose position there could be no mistake. Mr. Carlisle's speech will have a profound influence on his party in the way of assuring all doubters that there is to be no backdown on the part of those who have brought forward the Morrison bill. This measure is moderate and reasonable. It has been sanctioned in principle by the Republicans themselves. If the Democratic party is to split upon it, let it split.

It is of course easy to exaggerate the importance of the passage of a measure like the Roosevelt bill, and we have no desire to do so. Much remains to be done, even now that it has become a law, to purify the politics of this city and make its government decent; for making its government really decent means the complete transfer of it from the Mikes and Johnnies who now carry it on, to the class on which in the long run the welfare and progress of the community depend—the honest, the saving, and the industrious, who have converted New York from what it was a generation ago into a great modern capital, and that in spite of the most shocking misgovernment and pillage by its political class. The centre of their power has always been in the cumbrous political machinery, handed down from the middle ages, which, originally designed to insure free municipal institutions, has come in our time to make city administration a burlesque. The goal to which all modern cities tend, and to which New York has long been tending, notwithstanding all its misfortunes, is freedom from "politics" so called, and efficiency of administration. The Mayor and the departments have been gradually vested with nearly all the powers which the Mayor, Common Council, and Aldermen once enjoyed. The old mediaeval concern has meantime been dying of atrophy, caused by our gradually taking away its nourishment. The Common Council withered away years ago; most of the functions of the Aldermen went too; and, now that their control over appointments is gone, the work may be said to be complete, and the time has come when we may turn our eyes to the real government of the city, as it will exist in the future, the essential features of which are to be the election by universal suffrage of a

single executive head, vested with absolute power of appointment, and held responsible for its exercise.

Mr. Roosevelt's Committee made a unanimous report to the Assembly on Friday. It is the more interesting that it relates not to confessedly political bodies like the commissions, but to the minor administrative machinery of this city, which has to be conducted with a certain amount of regularity, honesty, and efficiency. The way in which it is actually carried on appears from the following facts. The books of the County Clerk, Keenan, show that he has received \$13,700 in fees, which the law requires him to turn over to the city, but which he has put in his own pocket, and this is said to be the "practice" of the office; Keenan's predecessor, Butler, having kept \$36,020 50, and Keenan explaining that it is done under "advice of counsel." The Clerk gets as his net income \$80,000. His entire term of office yields him \$250,000, but a large part of it is "turned over to the various political organizations" from which he gets his place; in other words, he buys the place, and pays for it by fees which are supposed to pay him for doing the work of Clerk. Finally, he does not do this work at all, his time being taken up with politics, as the Committee says he admitted with "great frankness." The work is of course done by some of his subordinates, and the community is taxed \$250,000 by every County Clerk to keep up this wonderful system. The Register, who keeps the records of deeds and mortgages, does not know what his income is, and has forgotten whether he paid more or less than \$50,000 for his office. The Committee found it impossible to ascertain what the office is really worth to the incumbent, for the books were removed by the late Register, Mr. Decharty, who was suddenly obliged to leave the city by severe illness. The clerks and subordinates, with the exception of a few copyists, are the private employees of the Register, and not in the pay of the city at all. The fees paid "amount to \$75,000 or \$80,000 a year, the money being used, first, to pay for the office, and then to pay Mr. Reilly for keeping his little bureau in working order."

The clerical part of the Surrogate's office is "largely run by his subordinates simply for the purpose of blackmail." At least \$10,000 a year, and "probably a sum vastly in excess of this amount," is extorted from those whose property passes through the Surrogate's hands, for services of one sort and another, for which the clerks are already otherwise paid. Except in one instance, no account is kept of these fees. All this is the more easily understood when we learn that the clerks are not employed or paid by the Surrogate, but by the Aldermen. These Aldermanic henchmen let out desk-room in the Surrogate's domain to their friends, who, without holding any public office, perform public work on their own account and at their own rates; those who use the

office of course taking them for clerks. The Committee sum up their picture of the Surrogate's office in the remark that the first step in getting any work done there is "to bribe the employees." The Sheriff's office is a great nursery of blackmail, which seems unnecessary, as the Sheriff receives an enormous quantity of fees every year for services which it costs him "almost nothing to perform." For instance, he fills in blanks, which could be done by a clerk at \$1,500 a year, for \$26,299; the compensation here again being fixed in the funny way noticed already, by the Aldermen, at what they think a "reasonable" figure. The conveyance of prisoners to and from jail cost \$23,109 last year; the Aldermanic rate being \$1.75 a head, or more than 25 cents a city block. The Sheriff feeds his prisoners at a profit of \$14,000, makes \$3,600 by serving notices on jurors, and pockets \$600 whenever a criminal is hung. He clears about \$60,000 a year. With regard to his jail in Ludlow Street, the Committee report that it is in a "revolting and almost incredible" condition; the keepers being "drunken and brutal," and making a living out of the wretched prisoners by a "thorough system of extortion and blackmail."

The Fitz John Porter case is at last at an end, the bill for his relief having passed the Senate on Thursday by a vote of 36 to 25, after another speech from General Logan, which, however, produced nothing new. The case is one of the most remarkable on record, not more for the persistence with which General Porter has maintained his struggle, than for the success he has had in keeping the interest in it alive. As a general rule, a man with a grievance twenty years old becomes a bore, to whom people listen wearily; and there is no similar body in the world more indifferent than Congress to tales of ancient wrong. It rarely, indeed, does tardy justice at all. But Porter has surmounted all these difficulties, and in addition has managed to beat down a vast amount of passionate prejudice, the maintenance of which many people had come to think part of their duty to the country, and to the memory of those who perished in the war. The whole case against him hung, in the last analysis, on the theory that a professional soldier who did not like or who distrusted his commanding officer, would necessarily be quite ready to betray the Government he served and the soldiers who fought under him. The evidence produced against him would have had no value whatever without this theory, and for the theory there is no support in military history. It was hatched in the brain of politicians, and it is really they who have kept it alive till now.

Mr. Blaine's canvass has reached that familiar stage where it becomes necessary to set him right with the religious sentiment of the country. His organ in Philadelphia announces that during the past fortnight it has "received a score of inquiries on the subject," and that while the religious opinions of a public man, especially of a public man who has retired from politics, "are not a fit subject for public discussion," still the "malicious spread of misconception" cannot be allowed to pass

unnoticed when complete refutation is at hand. Accordingly that "indignant private letter" which Mr. Blaine wrote to a personal friend in 1876 is produced in full, with its memorable passage about the charge that he is a Roman Catholic being "very exasperating when connived at, if not in fact originated, by men who sat with me in a Presbyterian Bible class when I was a student in Washington College." We presume that the letter is reproduced now, not so much for any effect which it may have in the preliminary Presidential debate, as to ward off the possibility of injuring the "history" by impeaching its unsectarian fairness.

Some heedless person, who has no comprehension of the great subject with which he is trifling, has given to the newspapers advance sheets of the tenth chapter of Mr. Blaine's history, and some of them have published the whole of it. For some inexplicable reason, the chapter is generally treated as a campaign document rather than as the calm and judicial narrative of a historian who has withdrawn forever from the heat of political strife. Democratic journals call it "Blaine's bid for the Presidency," and Blaine organs go into raptures over its beauties of diction and breadth of view, which can only be accounted for on the supposition that they are unaware how painful this premature publication must be to the sensitive mind of the distinguished author. The chapter deals with the period just preceding the civil war, and is devoted mainly to a consideration of the way in which the South was led into secession, to Buchanan's character and administration, and to a "pen portrait" of Jere Black. Concerning the style of the author, we cannot do better than quote the following restrained description from the editorial columns of Mr. Blaine's devoted organ, the *Philadelphia Press*: "The author combines in one the political leader, the experienced man of affairs, the orator, and the trained writer whose clear-cut, forceful sentences lose nothing of their charm, though the graces of voice and person be absent and the words presented in cold type stand alone to challenge the admiration of the reader. In vastness of subject and breadth of treatment neither the 'Notes' or 'Writings' of Jefferson, the autobiography of Franklin, the 'Thirty Years' View' of Benton, the diary of John Quincy Adams, nor the modern writings of Henry Wilson, Sumner, or Seward can compare with the work which Mr. Blaine has taken upon himself." It is a cause for infinite regret that so important a contribution as this to historical literature should be paraded before the world as if it were a mere stump speech of an incurable Presidential aspirant. Not only is Mr. Blaine's standing as a historian injured thereby, but his sagacity as a politician is impeached by the inference which is given that he thinks a successful run can be made for the Presidency on the issues of Buchanan's administration. Undoubtedly his publishers are responsible for this indiscretion, and he will only serve them right if he takes the "work" out of their hands forthwith.

The Advisory Council called to settle the dispute in the Newman church have ren-

dered a decision which has the rare merit of delighting both sides. Dr. Newman says he considers "the victory on his side," and Dr. Ranney says he "never was happier in his life." The main issue which the Council was called on to decide was, whether Dr. Newman is the permanent and settled pastor of the church or not. The Council has decided that he is not, which is what the Ranney party have been contending for. He is, the Council says, simply the acting pastor. Whether the Ranney dismissal of him on the 14th of February is valid or not, the Council does not say, but advises that this point be reconsidered at another meeting. The whole trouble seems, indeed, to have originated in Dr. Newman's refraining from any such formal and regular acceptance of the call of the church as would take him out of the Methodist Episcopal Church, with which the Council finds he is still "in full connection," and to the discipline of which he is still amenable, as "a located preacher in the Quarterly Conference of the Methodist Church."

The bill which passed the Assembly at Albany on Monday, virtually lowering the fares on the elevated railways by extending the five-cent hours, does not commend itself to principles of justice. It has not been called for by any general demand on the part of those who commonly ride during the ten-cent hours, nor would such demand if made furnish a good reason for passing the bill. The elevated railways are not owned by the people who ride on them in the ten-cent hours. If they were so owned it would not be necessary to ask the Legislature to pass any bill on the subject, as the matter would naturally be arranged in a stockholders' meeting. But these non-stockholders who go down town late and go up town early have not "moved" for a reduction of fares. They have held no meetings, passed no resolutions, written no letters to the newspapers, taken none of the steps which betoken an earnest desire to have the fares reduced. Notwithstanding all this, it would be proper for the Legislature to take the matter under consideration at any time if it were clear that the power to fix the fares (regardless of earnings) resided in that body. It may be that the Legislature has, by some inscrutable process, acquired such power, although it was not conferred or reserved at the time when the charters were granted and the railways were built. It was then expressly understood and agreed that the rates of fare fixed in the bill should stand until the net earnings should exceed ten per cent. upon the capital actually invested. Last year the Railroad Commission made a careful investigation of the company's condition, its cost, earnings, expenses, etc., and reported that it was not yielding ten per cent. upon actual cost. Notwithstanding all this, the Legislature passed the so-called Five-Cent-Fare Bill and the Governor very properly vetoed it. There has been no change in the facts since that time that the Legislature can take cognizance of. The earnings may have increased meanwhile, but that is by no means certain. It is certain that no new bill ought to be passed without a new investigation, and it is to be hoped that the Governor will veto this bill, if it reaches him, upon the

same conclusive and sufficient grounds as those upon which he vetoed the last one.

The gratifying intelligence is sent out from Philadelphia that all the "subordinates" who have been engaged for years upon the mysterious task of constructing the Keely motor have been discharged because their work is ended. Keely will from this date be shut up alone with the motor, and will devote all his energies to "focalizing and adjusting the vibrators." This is a delicate operation, we are assured, and would be a most difficult one for anybody except Keely. For him it will be mere child's play, and will end so soon as he obtains one revolution. Nobody can tell how long this will take, but the stockholders are to hold a meeting next Tuesday evening, when the date of an exhibition for their pecuniary benefit "will probably be announced." It is evident that the next few days will constitute a period of intense excitement to all interested in the mystery. The knowledge that Keely is imprisoned alone with his "motor," focalizing and adjusting it for the long-delayed action, will excite tears of joy and hope on every hand. The result of his week's labor may be a revolution which will relegate all other motors into the background, or it may be another postponement.

The case of Fullerton, the transfer clerk of the Manhattan Beach Company, who fraudulently issued 475 shares of stock belonging to the company, and obtained the money (about \$45,000), which he is supposed to have lost at the card table, brings up in a new form the question of the liability of a corporation for the fraudulent acts of its agents. Probably the company in this case will not dispute the validity of the stock in the hands of any innocent purchaser, as it is not a case of over-issue, but one of plain theft by an employee. There is a rule of the Stock Exchange which requires the witnessing of the signatures of transfers by a member of the Exchange, in order to make the certificates a good delivery to other members; but this rule cannot determine the legal liability of parties in cases of fraudulent issues. All the decisions of courts in cases like the present run to the conclusion that although a company cannot, through fraud or otherwise, make an overissue (which would be an increase of its capital without the authority of the Legislature), it is responsible to innocent purchasers for the value of any shares put in circulation by its own officers and agents, even though these shares are in excess of the whole number authorized by law. The shares fraudulently put out by Fullerton were not in excess of the total authorized issue, but were part of the company's assets. The case therefore seems to be one of mere embezzlement, in which the Manhattan Beach Company is the only sufferer.

The efforts of the Ohio Democrats to have the Scott Liquor Law superseded by some measure more pleasing to the liquor-dealers are not likely to succeed. Three caucuses have been held by the Democratic members of the Legislature for the purpose of enforcing united action in favor of a graded tax bill, which is drawn up in accordance with the de-

mands of the liquor interest, but ten Democrats have refused to support such a bill under any circumstances, and their votes, combined with the Republican vote, will give a majority of five in the Assembly against it. As the Democratic caucus has adopted the bill as a party measure, they have made the necessary "record" for campaign uses, and that is the end chiefly desired. Under the Scott law the liquor trade is held in control much better than ever before, and the revenue which it brings to the State is a perceptible relief in lessening the burdens of taxation.

Mr. Frederick Whittaker, a popular author of whom few of our readers have probably heard, has come out in a long letter in defence of "dime novels." He says that he has written a great many himself, and that the prevalent notion that it is under the influence of the dime novel that the boy of the period takes to murder, arson, and highway robbery, is a delusion. He declares that the dime libraries are of all classes. "Some are stories of adventure by land and sea; others of workingmen's life; others are founded on history, like those of Scott; while others are of frontier life, and record the adventures of real men, like Kit Carson, Daniel Boone, and the well-known scouts of our own time. There is no mention of famous bandits, or of any of that sort of thing; yet their subjects are legion." If this is true, it looks as if the pure dime novel of our fathers is confused now, in the public mind and common speech, with some later and debased pieces of literature, from which it ought to be carefully discriminated; at any rate, Mr. Whittaker's letter shows that the recent editorial statement of the *Tribune*: "The work of the dime novel is being performed with unusual success. The other day three boys robbed their parents and started off for the boundless West," embodies a hasty inference. As a general rule, the reading done by a youthful criminal is only one of many causes which produce his downfall, and consequently, even if the American boy could be suddenly cut off by criminal legislation or a heavy tax from indulging a debauched literary taste, he would still be subject to manifold temptations, and would only here and there become entirely pure and good; while it is needless to say that there are many legal and economical difficulties in the way of any reform of the kind. The press must evidently labor cautiously and tentatively in this field.

Prince Bismarck has made in the Reichstag a characteristically clumsy explanation, in the nature of an apology, of his action in the Lasker matter. He adds nothing, however, to what he said in his despatch, beyond a repudiation of any unfriendliness to the United States. His plea is, in substance, as he himself expresses it, that he was not going to be made his "enemy's postman"—that is, the medium of transmitting a communication in which an enemy was in effect praised for his opposition to him. The discussion which followed indicated more clearly than ever that it is the Reichstag which he has offended, and that it is for the Reichstag to call him to account. We can do

nothing more in the matter beyond calling him hard names; but this, even if it were seemly on such an occasion, would hardly mend matters.

Osman Digna has shared the fate of the commander at Trinkitat, whoever he was, by being badly beaten, in spite of his preaching and the fanaticism of his followers. It is lucky for the British, however, that the enemy was willing to make a stand at such a convenient distance from the coast. The details of General Graham's victory show that the tactics practised by the Arabs on the Egyptian squares were for a moment successful on one of the British squares—that is, a charge was made, under cover of the smoke, at one of the angles which held a Gatling gun, and the square was entered under the wheels of the gun, and a good deal of cutting and slashing done and confusion wrought inside. But the British loss shows that there was no great execution done by the attack after all. The force was exposed to a distant fire all the previous night, and to two hours' "hard fighting" in daylight, and had to stand the assaults of 10,000 desperate men, and yet the casualties all told only amount to 250. The proportion of killed (100) to the wounded is, however, very high, showing that the Arabs thrust home with their spears. The fact that the Arabs reached the squares at all, however, in considerable force reflects great credit on them as fighting men, and evidently calls for some revision of the received opinion about the powers of the breechloader. It was, and we believe is still, the judgment of all Continental military critics, that the fire of the British line is the most effective in the world, owing to the superior coolness of the men. It has been generally laid down, too of late years, that neither cavalry nor infantry can approach any body of troops, armed with breechloaders, who are not themselves under fire. That the Arabs should have charged with such impetuosity, therefore, as to leave heaps of dead just outside the square, is certainly an extraordinary exploit, unless the British soldier has greatly fallen off in the use of the musket. He never shot with precision at long range, but he has always made a fire which was "withering" within three hundred yards. Ability to run rapidly on all fours has probably had a good deal to do with the Arab success, and it is a bit of drill which might perhaps be profitably introduced into other armies. It would be very amusing at reviews.

The report is again renewed that the United States and England are to be called upon to mediate between France and China. There are a great many reasons why England should be called in; but our interest in Chinese commerce and the treaty ports is comparatively small, and the objections to action on our part numerous. Indeed, among protectionists it must be very doubtful whether we ought not to desire a blockade of the ports. It would help to make our commercial isolation more complete, and make us turn our attention more closely than ever to the development of our grand old coasting trade.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

(WEDNESDAY, March 12, to TUESDAY, March 18, 1884, inclusive.)

DOMESTIC.

ATTORNEY GENERAL BREWSTER has sent a circular to all United States Attorneys and Marshals, by direction of the President, in which he says: "It is reported that certain persons are aiding in the prosecution of heinous crimes by shipping to foreign ports explosives dangerous in the highest degree to life and property. No proof has been adduced that this rumor is founded upon fact, and the President cannot believe its truth. The honor of this nation, however, requires that it should not be open to the imputation, unfounded though it be, of the slightest appearance of tolerating such crimes, whether to be committed against our people or those of other countries." He therefore calls their attention to certain sections of the Revised Statutes of the United States, which provide that any person transporting or delivering on board a vessel, engaged in carrying passengers between the United States and any foreign country, nitroglycerine and other dangerous and powerful explosives, shall be punished with a fine of not less than \$1,000 nor more than \$10,000, one-half for the use of the informer. The Attorneys and Marshals are instructed to be diligent in their efforts to prevent the offences described, and to detect and prosecute those who may commit them. The circular is an outgrowth of the dynamite discussion in England.

The terms of the Mexican treaty, recently ratified by the Senate, require certain legislation by Congress to give it effect. This will bring the whole question before the House of Representatives.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Thursday considered the action of Prince Bismarck upon the Lasker resolution. Mr. Phelps (Rep., N. J.) proposed that a report should be submitted to the House, declaring in effect that the wise course of the Secretary of State relieved the House from the necessity of any further action. Mr. Eaton (Dem., Conn.) said that the action of Bismarck was an insult, and should be resented in terms which would leave no doubt of its emphatic disapproval. The further consideration of the subject was referred to a sub-committee consisting of Messrs. Curtin, Eaton, Phelps, and Rice.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Monday unanimously agreed to a resolution in the Lasker matter. It in substance renews the expression of regret at the death of a distinguished member of the German Parliament on American soil, and states that the House has no concern in the relations between the German Executive and the Reichstag.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday defeated the item of the Postal Appropriation Bill making \$4,000 the largest salary of any Postmaster.

Mr. Hewitt introduced in the House on Monday, and had read, the bill recommended by the New York Chamber of Commerce to suspend the coinage of silver dollars for two years, and to forbid the issue of one and two-dollar notes.

The Senate passed the Fitz-John Porter Bill on Thursday by a vote of thirty-six to twenty-five; Messrs. Hoar, Jones, Pike, Sabin, and Sewell of the Republicans voting yea. As it omits the clause giving Porter "all the rights, titles, and privileges" held by him when dismissed, and more specifically cutting off any back pay, it will have to go back to the House for concurrence.

The Senate on Monday passed a resolution appropriating \$50,000 for the stamping out of the foot-and-mouth disease among cattle. On Tuesday Senator Hawley introduced a bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to offer a reward of \$25,000 for rescuing or ascertaining the fate of the Greely Arctic Expedition.

The bill to aid in the establishment and temporary support of common schools was taken up in the Senate on Tuesday. It appropriates for the first year \$15,000,000; the second, \$14,000,000; the third, \$13,000,000; and so on for ten years, decreasing \$1,000,000 yearly, to be expended for common-school education, the distribution to each State being made on the basis of illiteracy; the money to be paid by the United States in the first instance to the Treasurers of the respective States, or such other agents as the States may designate, and the Secretary of the Interior to have charge of the portion going to the Territories. Senator Blair, of New Hampshire, made a speech in its favor.

Henry Watterson appeared before the Joint Committee on the Library on Friday, and made an argument in support of the Newspaper Copyright Bill. He explained that the present bill granting a copyright for eight hours was all that was sought by the promoters of the measure. Its object was simply to prevent the pirating of news and concurrent publication. He said that it did not act as a bar to the reproduction by afternoon newspapers of matter which had appeared in the morning papers, and could not, in the remotest degree, affect what is known as the "country press."

The United States Supreme Court rendered a decision on Monday of much interest to Northern capitalists who had money in the hands of Southern agents at the outbreak of the rebellion. The suit was brought by Northern parties to recover of a Southern agent who had their funds. His defence was that he was compelled to pay the money to the Confederate Government under the Confiscation Act. The Supreme Court holds that the Confederacy has no legal status; that its acts are no defence; that the Southern trustee was a part of the Confederacy, and cannot plead such a defence, and, therefore, that the Northern creditor can recover.

Governor Cleveland signed on Monday the bill taking from the Aldermen of this city the power to confirm the Mayor's nominations. He filed with it a long memorandum giving his reasons for approving the measure. In this he says: "It will hardly do to say that, because the Aldermen are elected annually and the Mayor every two years, the former are nearer the people and more especially their representatives. The difference in their terms is not sufficient to make a distinction in their direct relations to the citizens. The intelligence and watchfulness of the citizens of New York should certainly furnish a safe guarantee that the duties and powers devolved by this legislation upon their chosen representative will be well and wisely bestowed; and, if they err or are betrayed, their remedy is close at hand."

Mr. Clinton's bill to extend the State Civil Service Act to all cities was called for third reading in the Assembly on Thursday. After being amended on motion of General Curtis in the way of improvement, the vote was taken without debate and the bill was lost, 55 ayes to 50 nays (not a majority of the whole Assembly). Thirty-six Democrats and fourteen Republicans voted against it.

Mr. Roosevelt, Chairman of the Assembly Special Committee which has investigated the various departments of the local government of New York city, presented in the Assembly on Friday the results of the Committee's investigations in a voluminous report. The details of it cannot be presented in a brief paragraph. In Mr. Roosevelt's oral summary of the report he said: "We found a large number of abuses due not to bad laws but to a violation or evasion of good ones, and these abuses we have brought to the notice of the proper prosecuting authorities of the county and State—the Corporation Counsel, District Attorney, and Attorney-General. As far as we went, we certainly found the government of the city of New York to be in a condition that was simply appalling, and that would not

be allowed to exist for one moment if the majority of the voters of that city were alive to the dangers that threaten them, and were influenced by the slightest particle of public spirit."

Nine bills were reported by Mr. Roosevelt's Committee to remedy the abuses uncovered by the investigation. The general character of these was referred to last week. Mr. Roosevelt failed to obtain the necessary votes to make the bills a special order for certain days.

Assemblyman Roosevelt called on Governor Cleveland on Tuesday, and formally asked for the removal from office of Alexander V. Davidson, Sheriff of New York city. Mr. Roosevelt reviewed the evidence taken before the Committee relative to the abuses in the Sheriff's office.

The Assembly, on Monday evening, by a vote of 71 to 20, passed the bill extending the commission hours of the elevated railroads of this city so as to make them from 4 to 10 A. M. and from 3 to 9 P. M.

The annual dinner of the New York Free-Trade Club took place in this city at Delmonico's on Saturday evening, more than two hundred gentlemen being present. The event of the evening was the speech of Speaker Carlisle, whose masterful review of the evils to which protection had subjected the country was frequently interrupted by applause. The other speakers were Senator Vance, who spoke on the financial slavery of the present day; Hilary A. Herbert, David A. Wells, George H. Putnam, Professor W. G. Sumner, Capt. John Codman, Perry Belmont, and James Parker.

The sugar planters of Louisiana held a convention in New Orleans on Wednesday, and passed resolutions declaring that "the time has come when the sugar-planters and manufacturers and rice-growers of Louisiana should demand that cane-sugar and rice be included among the products of American industry which are entitled to adequate and permanent protection."

The Meigs Elevated Railroad Bill has passed the Massachusetts Legislature. It nominally permits the construction, under certain restrictions, of elevated railroads under the Meigs system through any of the towns or cities of the Commonwealth, subject to the approval of Selectmen or Aldermen.

It is reported that a number of Fenian Leagues have been formed in Dakota to aid in furthering the secession movement in Manitoba.

The great levee on the Mississippi at Morganza, La., broke on Friday night, damaging property valued at several million dollars.

A terrible explosion, supposed to have been caused by fire damp, occurred at the coal mines near Pocahontas, Va., on Thursday morning, about 12:30 o'clock. One hundred and fifty miners, Hungarians and negroes, were in the mine at the time, and all were killed. The work of destruction was not confined entirely to the interior of the mines, but houses two or three hundred feet removed from the mines were overturned, and in several instances entirely demolished. The large ventilator of the Southwest Improvement Company was blown to atoms.

Hamilton College seniors have returned to their work, on the Faculty's terms.

Prentice Tiller, the Pacific Express Company's money clerk at St. Louis, who decamped with nearly \$100,000 a few weeks ago, was arrested on Thursday in Milwaukee, and \$90,000 of the stolen money recovered.

FOREIGN.

Prince Bismarck appeared in the German Reichstag on Thursday and made a speech in justification of the course he had pursued in refusing to transmit the Lasker resolution to the Reichstag. He said that he had recognized the good intentions of the American Congress, but he was unable to harness himself to the

car of the Opposition. He would have refrained from alluding to the matter except for the manner in which the Reichstag had discussed it. He continued: "Herr Lasker belonged to an Opposition group who made immense capital out of Herr Lasker's merits." At this point the Left interrupted with loud cries of "Shame." He turned indignantly toward the quarter from which the cries came, and, advancing toward the Left, shouted: "The cry of 'shame' is an insult to me, and demands for me the protection of the President." He said that Herr Lasker introduced himself in America as the champion of German freedom against the despotic tendencies of the Chancellor. "Am I to make myself my enemy's postman?" asked Bismarck. "Even on the assumption that Americans are not intimately acquainted with our circumstances, the American Minister at Berlin, or some other official who possessed sufficient knowledge, might have sent a confidential warning against conferring on me the part of postman. This was not done. Therefore, I instructed Herr Eisendecher, the German Minister at Washington, that I could not possibly forward the resolution." Dr. Haenel, Progressist, replied that the friendly sentiments of the resolution should have been recognized without too carefully weighing the words in which they were expressed. The appearance of Prince Bismarck in the Reichstag is generally attributed to his desire to maintain friendship with America.

Mr. Sargent, the United States Minister to Germany, has accepted from Prince Bismarck an invitation to a dinner to be given on March 22, in honor of the eighty-seventh anniversary of the birthday of Emperor William.

It was rumored in London on Sunday that the British Government, desiring to test the opinion of the country in regard to the Egyptian policy, and fearing that obstruction in the present Parliament would thwart the Franchise Bill, had decided to dissolve Parliament, and had informed the Queen of this decision through Mr. Chamberlain, who dined at Windsor Castle on Saturday evening. The London *Daily News* on Monday predicted an early resignation of the Cabinet, and asserted that the existence of the Government and of Parliament was precarious and in hourly jeopardy.

Mr. Gladstone was suffering from laryngeal catarrh on Sunday and Monday, and was unable to take an active part in the crisis. On Tuesday morning he was better, but absolute rest was enjoined. In the evening he was worse, and it is probable he will go to the South of France for a rest.

General Graham's British forces defeated the rebels under Osman Digna, in a hard-fought battle near Suakim on Thursday. The rebels opened fire about one o'clock in the morning. It was bright moonlight. The British troops were ordered to lie down. All night the Arabs kept up a fusillade which was annoying. They directed their fire especially toward the hospital wagons. At six o'clock, sunrise, a Gardner gun and a nine-pounder were turned against the rebels, who were within 1,300 yards of the British position and afforded a most excellent target. The Arabs were soon compelled to retire to their main position near the Tamia Wells. The British forces advanced in two brigades, which were thrown into the form of squares. A series of encounters followed. Soon after leaving Sariba, the great body of the rebels charged the leading squares, spearing many of the British. The sailors, who were inside the square, immediately closed up, and the rebels were repulsed with great slaughter. The advance was then resumed, when immense hordes rushed upon the British from both sides. The Arabs fought with great pluck and bravado, and were nearly all killed. The second brigade met with obstinate resistance and was at one time repulsed. The

rebels, under cover of the smoke, crept close up to the British lines and dashed against the marines and the Sixty-fifth and Black Watch Regiments, throwing themselves upon the bayonets of the British. The Sixty-fifth began to retreat, crowding upon the marines, when all became inextricably mixed. The guns fell into the hands of the rebels. General Graham and his staff did their utmost to rally the men, retreating 800 yards to enable them to reform. Assistance from the other brigade prevented a serious disaster. The enemy fought more stubbornly than at Teb. Ninety-one British were killed and 103 wounded. The rebel loss is estimated at 2,000 killed and several thousand wounded. About 12,000 took part in the fight. The camp of the rebels was in General Graham's hands before noon, and a victory was assured. The Hussars made a forward movement and cut off the rebels' retreat to Sinkat. The Arabs retired before the English slowly and sulkily. They were defeated, but not put to rout.

A panic occurred on Friday night among the Egyptian troops under Baker Pasha, who were still in camp at Sariba. They got the notion that the rebels were approaching, became frightened, and took to their heels. Before the panic was allayed two men that were taken for rebels were killed. The troops returning to Suakim on Saturday cheered greatly the personal heroism of Adams Fraser, the largest man of the Black Watch Regiment. Twelve Arabs were despatched by his single bayonet.

General Graham was ordered on Monday not to push his reconnaissance far beyond Hauduk. It is not true, as has been reported, that Turkish troops are going to Suakim, or that the British Government has decided to send an expedition to Sinkat and Berber.

Osman Digna, with 2,000 followers, was reported on Tuesday in the neighborhood of his old camp. He adopts the same tone in his intercourse with his people as before the last disaster, and is exhorting them to a religious war. He assures them that in the third battle success will be theirs. But the tribes are much demoralized as they reflect upon the full significance of their crushing defeat.

A conference held in Suakim on Sunday between Admiral Hewett, General Graham, and the chief inhabitants of Suakim, resulted in the issue of a proclamation offering a reward of £1,000 for the capture of Osman Digna. The Admiral explained on Tuesday that he considered Osman Digna a murderer because he had killed two of his messengers. Therefore he had offered the reward for his head. The British Government ordered him to withdraw it in the most judicious manner possible.

The Haggis tribe have given their adherence to General Gordon, thus stemming the advance of the Sheikh El Obeid to the Nile. General Gordon has built a strong fortified camp on the opposite side of the Blue Nile, and has stationed a strong force there to prevent the advance of El Obeid.

There were indications on Saturday of increasing activity on the part of the rebels near the Nile. Beyond Berber, telegraphic communication was cut off, and a steamer descending the Nile from that city was fired upon by the insurgents.

Much anxiety is felt in regard to the situation at Khartum. The correspondent of the London *Times* at Alexandria says: "It is proverbial that three courses are possible: to leave General Gordon to his fate; to despatch English troops to Khartum; or to import Indian troops. The policy of doing nothing has not hitherto achieved signal success."

The police of Newcastle-on-Tyne have received information of a plot to explode the principal buildings of the city, including the Central Railway station and the Post-office.

The Irish justices, in opening the Assizes, agree that there has been a gratifying diminution of crime in Ireland.

Henry George has abandoned his lecturing tour in Great Britain on account of ill health, and has gone to the Continent to recuperate.

Richard Hengist Horne, the English poet, essayist, and critic, is dead. Mr. Horne was born early in the present century. He was educated for the army at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, but entered the Mexican navy as midshipman. He served until the close of the war between Mexico and Spain. After that he came to the United States, where he visited the Huron, Oneida, Mohawk, and other Indian tribes. On returning to England he devoted himself to a literary life, producing several tragedies and the epic "Orion," which has reached ten editions. He has been a constant contributor to periodical literature.

M. Waddington, French Ambassador at London, telegraphed on Saturday to Prime Minister Ferry that the Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador, had asked Earl Granville, the English Foreign Secretary, to mediate between China and France.

On Sunday it was announced in Paris that the French advance from Bac Ninh had begun. Gen. Delisle marched upon Thainguyen, and Gen. Negrier upon Langson. The French Government instructed Gen. Millot not to carry operations beyond Thainguyen and Langson. Prime Minister Ferry has reopened direct negotiations with Marquis Tseng for a treaty with China, France to retain Bac Ninh.

General Negrier's column entered the city at 6 o'clock on Wednesday evening. The French had seventy wounded, and the Chinese loss was heavy. General Negrier encountered the enemy at Xaitoy. A severe battle ensued. The enemy were at last forced to retreat, and the French forces pursued them into Bac Ninh by the Langson road. The enemy evacuated the town in great disorder, and the French continued to pursue them in the direction of Thainguyen.

Advices from Bac Ninh on Monday reported that the French forces, while pursuing the Chinese near Phulangian, crossed the river and captured the Phulang fort.

It was reported in Paris on Tuesday that Li Hung Chang, Viceroy of China, was submitting a basis of peace to the English and American Ministers at Peking and asking them to intervene.

Haiphong despatches report that pirates had captured a small merchant steamer near that town, and had murdered the French captain and eleven of the crew.

Prime Minister Ferry, of France, has been interviewed on the question of a general disarmament by the European Powers. He pronounces it an impossibility, and says the discussion of it is a waste of time.

A manifesto from Prince Napoleon (Plon-Plon) is regarded in Paris as imminent. He has left Paris for Switzerland to avoid arrest, taking with him his papers and valuables.

General Velarde, a cavalry ensign, three sergeants, and two civilians were arrested at General Velarde's house in Madrid on Saturday. A number of other arrests were made. The Spanish Government has been aware for some time that there was a conspiracy for a military uprising similar to that which took place last August; and hence the arrests. Part of the conspiracy was to seize the palace some time when the ministers were assembled and King Alfonso was presiding. Zorilla is believed to have had a hand in the affair.

Signor Quintino Sella, the Italian mathematician and financier, is dead. He was at one time Secretary of the Italian Treasury. His works on mineralogy and mathematics are standards in Italy.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies has accepted the resignation of its President, Farini. The election of his successor on the 20th will probably be made a Cabinet question.

A NEW VIEW OF THE CONSTITUTION.

JUDGE FIELD'S dissenting opinion in the legal-tender case declares that the Court has adopted a rule of construction which, if followed in other cases, would change the whole nature of the Government. A brief examination of the opinion of Judge Gray on the other side is sufficient to show exactly what this means. The Constitution gives Congress the power to "borrow money on the credit of the United States," and "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers." Now, says Judge Gray, the settled rule of construction is that the words "necessary and proper" include "all appropriate means which are conducive or adapted to the end to be accomplished, and which in the judgment of Congress will most advantageously effect it." The Judges maintain that among the means adapted to the end of borrowing money in the case of a Government is that of making its notes a legal tender for the payment of private debts; that Congress has decided this to be the case, and consequently it has the power. At first sight this argument seems to involve the right of making a legal-tender currency wherever the right to borrow money exists. Every man in the United States has the right to "borrow money" if he can get any one to lend it to him, but he cannot therefore make his notes and I. O. U.'s legal tender. Why not? What is the difference between the two cases? The Court bridges over the difficulty by saying that a government's power to borrow money is different from that of an individual's, and that a "sovereign" has always had the power to make its notes current from hand to hand in this way.

The Court really need not have taken the trouble to invent this curious species of argument; for the Judges had before them a clause of the Constitution which would have required no such stretching to make it meet the case. Among the enumerated powers given to Congress is the following: "The Congress shall have power to levy and collect taxes, duties, imports, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States." Now, the Court says, this clause "either embodies a grant of power to pay the debts of the United States, or presupposes and assumes that power as inherent in the United States as a sovereign government." In the same way the clause obviously either embodies a grant of power to "provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States," or presupposes and assumes that power as inherent in the United States as a sovereign Government. Not only may Congress provide for the general welfare, but it may pass all laws which are conducive or adapted to the end to be accomplished, and which in the judgment of Congress will most advantageously effect it.

This is not the argument of a narrow-minded Democratic lawyer, nor our own. It is that of the Supreme Court of the United States, and it gives a good deal of point to the following suggestion of Judge Field:

"The argument presented by the advocates of legal tender is, in substance, this: The object of borrowing is to raise funds, the addition of the quality of legal tender to the notes of the Government will induce parties to take them, and funds will thereby be more readily loaned. But the same thing may be said of the addition of any other quality which would give to the holder of the notes some advantage over the property of others, as, for instance, that the notes should serve as a pass on the public conveyances of the country, or as a ticket to places of amusement, or should exempt his property from State and municipal taxation, or entitle him to the free use of the telegraph lines, or to a percentage from the revenues of private corporations. The same consequence, a ready acceptance of the notes, would follow, and yet no one would pretend that the addition of privileges of this kind, with respect to the property of others over which the borrower has no control, would be in any sense an appropriate measure to the execution of the power to borrow."

"The power to provide for the general welfare" is quite enough. Under this and the power to pass necessary and appropriate laws, surely Congress may do whatever is needful with the currency or with commerce; and why it should be thought necessary to resort to an elaborate argument founded on the power to borrow money, we do not see.

The rule of construction adopted by the Court enables Congress to do what it pleases; makes it the judge of what is appropriate to the exercise of the implied powers of the Constitution, and makes the only limit of these the general doctrine of "sovereignty," which is either one of arbitrary power, or at the best the authority enjoyed by the English Parliament. When we talk of our Government being one of limited powers, we mean powers limited by the Constitution and defined by the courts. If the limits are to be imposed and the definitions framed by Congress, the use of the Supreme Court for keeping one branch of the Government from encroaching upon another or upon private rights is pretty nearly gone. Practically, there seems no way of avoiding this consequence of the legal-tender decision except through a new amendment, and we have got to pass such an amendment, or else adopt a view of the Constitution and Government wholly different from any hitherto held either by strict or free constructionists.

CATCHING THE DYNAMITERS.

WE have more than once, in answer to the demands of the English press on the United States Government in the matter of preventing the hatching of dynamitic plots in this country, called attention to the fact that in the English Custom-house and Coast-guard service there exists the most effective agency that could be devised—far more effective than anything we could possibly create—for preventing the introduction of explosives into England from abroad. Indeed, if the English Custom-house cannot stop the infernal machines, it is folly to ask any foreign police to do it. The other day, however, a valise containing a large quantity of dynamite was found at the Paddington Railroad station in London. Here is the description of it, taken from the London *Times*, which assumes it to be of American origin:

"The portmanteau, which had been deposited on Monday night, was well made of brown leather, and studded with brass knobs on the bottom and sides, to prevent the leather from coming into contact with the ground. It was eighteen inches long, eight inches deep, and about four inches across. It was fastened in the centre with a lock, having a flap to prevent wet from entering, and it had buckles and straps on each side and on the top. On being opened it was found to contain forty-six cakes of the 'Atlas Powder,' some in a cash box, and others packed around it. In this case, however, the label 'Atlas Powder' had been torn off nearly all the packets. The arrangement of the clock and the pistol here was exactly as in the Charing Cross bag. The clockwork had been set; but the workmanship or material of the spring had proved to be inferior, and the alarm had run down—the bell, of course, being off—without 'pulling off' the trigger of the pistol."

A very disagreeable article certainly, and too large to be concealed. The *Times* is apparently unconscious, however, of the bearing of the following remarks on its outcry against the American Government:

"There is one point in these discoveries which has caused astonishment, even in official circles, and that is how large quantities of this dangerous explosive could have passed through the Custom-house of this country. Travellers from the Continent know that their luggage is often rigorously searched on their arrival. But here it is plain that at least 90 lb. of an explosive compound of the most dangerous character has been allowed to slip through the fingers of the Custom-house officers, and this, too, from what may be called the land of tobacco."

Now, we cannot here set up machinery for searching the baggage of everybody who leaves the United States. But in England the baggage of everybody who enters the country is already searchable, and there are officers whose business it is to search it. They have long been full of suspicion about American travellers, and yet here is a bulky infernal machine passing from "the land of tobacco" through their very hands or under their very noses.

There could hardly be a better exposure than this one little incident furnishes of the rant of the following, which we find in an editorial article in the same paper on the same day:

"We know, and the Americans know, the busy brains which have plotted these outrages, the defiant tongues which have threatened them, and the nationality of their actual perpetrators. It would be no hard task for the American Government to put an end to the whole thing. We have done our part. We have frustrated the attempt which has been again and again made to carry through the conspiracy in this country. We have made the private manufacture of explosives penal, and their possession a thing for which the owner can be called to account. The result has been that the conspirators have changed their ground, and that they have found in America a safe refuge, and a Government which does not meddle with them. This is a state of things to which it is not possible that we should submit. It would be bad enough if America were a hostile country. A dynamite war does not come within the limit of permissible hostilities. Its agents are common enemies, whose presence no civilized community can tolerate without disgrace. The miscreants to whose hand we owe the late threefold attack on life and property have done only what American journals have been suffered to advocate, what rewards have been openly promised for, and what public meetings have been held to for-

ward or to applaud. It is time indeed that a strongly-worded remonstrance should be addressed to the Government of a country which connives at all this. We know that respectable Americans feel as we do in this matter, and that they are ashamed of the inaction of their rulers."

The assurance of the assertion that it would be "no hard task for the American Government to put an end to the whole thing," and that "we [England] have done our part," and that the American Government "connives" at the dynamite attacks on life and property, is, under the circumstances, simply amazing. What are we to say to a Government which allows such things as portmanteaux containing ninety pounds of dynamite and arranged with clock-work for explosion, to pass through its Custom-houses and be deposited in its leading railroad stations, and occasionally exploded, with great loss of life and damage to property, in the teeth of numerous warnings, from the very manufacturers of these instruments, uttered openly through the public press? If the English police and Custom-house can do no better than this now, how would it be if we silenced O'Donovan Rossa and the *Irish World*?

The Attorney-General's circular on the subject of dynamite shipments ought to convince the English Government that the Administration is ready to do anything in reason to put a stop to dynamite outrages. It appears to have been drawn up in consequence of representations or requests made from England. The cases in which one country will undertake to make special efforts to enforce its laws, and charge itself with a responsibility for their enforcement, on account of indirect danger arising from their breach to life and property abroad, must in the nature of things be very rare; but the Attorney-General, according to his own account, is going further than this, for he calls upon the District-Attorneys and Marshals to enforce the laws against shipment of explosives, upon a "report" that certain persons unnamed are "aiding in the prosecution of heinous crimes, by shipping to foreign ports explosives dangerous in the highest degree to life and property," and although "no proof has been adduced that this rumor has been founded upon fact."

The laws against the shipment of explosives were passed in 1866, long before the present dynamite war was dreamt of, and were designed for a very different purpose from that of preventing dynamite outrages, viz., the safety of travellers by land and water, and the protection of steamship and railroad companies. They made it illegal (U. S. R. S. sections 4278, 4279, 5353, 5354, 5355), first, to transport by land or water anything like dynamite on any *passenger* vessel or vehicle, between the States, or between places in the United States and any foreign country; second, to transport it by any means of conveyance unless it is packed in a metallic vessel, surrounded by some substance which will be non-explosive if "saturated" with the contents, and conspicuously marked "Nitro-glycerine, dangerous." Violations of these regulations are punishable by fine; and a death caused by violation of the act is made manslaughter, punishable with imprisonment for not less than two years.

These laws were not passed to prevent dynamite outrages, and it is difficult to see how the closest attention to their enforcement would prevent such outrages. The dynamite which is used for this purpose is not usually shipped from the place of manufacture to Liverpool by bill of lading, and there called for by the consignee. It is generally, and might, of course, always be made or purchased in secret, and carried about by hand, and caused to explode by means of machinery procured from a perfectly innocent clock vendor. The statutes do not authorize the search of persons for dynamite going on board ocean steamships, the idea that the fancy would come upon people to carry dynamite about in satchels not having occurred to Congress in 1866. If the law of 1866 had really been intended to break up dynamite conspiracies, it would have authorized the searching of all travellers and the seizure of all explosives found upon them. Of course such a law is out of the question in a free country like England or America, and would probably fail even in Russia.

The importance of the circular lies almost altogether in the evidence it gives of our sincere desire to put into execution all the power of the law against the dynamiters. It is an act of good-will that we could hardly have volunteered; indeed, had we done so, it would probably have laid us open to a charge of insincerity for undertaking to prevent dynamite outrages by means of laws which were designed for a different purpose, and very poorly adapted to any such end. But if England herself asks us to enforce such laws as a means of stopping the dynamiters, no harm can certainly come of it, and possibly some good. It is an act of extreme international good-will; first, because we have no proof that life and property in England are in any way endangered by a non-enforcement of these laws, nor even that these laws are not enforced; second, because they were passed for an entirely different object, not growing out of any international duty whatever. No country recognizes the right of another to demand that it should make special efforts to enforce its laws, without first proving that it has a strong interest in their enforcement, and, second, that they are not enforced. In this dynamite business it is well for us to proceed very cautiously, for everything that we do will be cited hereafter as a precedent, and there is no field of international activity in which it is more important to be cautious than that of recognizing the right of foreign governments to inquire into the enforcement of our domestic laws. As other requests may very likely follow, it is important to bear in mind that the right of England to require us to enforce our laws must, when it exists at all, grow out of some generally recognized international duty.

CLASSICAL SCULPTURE IN THE MUSEUMS OF EUROPE.

THE different museums of sculpture present no uniform practice with regard to repairs of their works of art. Even if their present managers should be practically of one mind as to this question, they are the inheritors of a long series of administrators most diversely minded. The more important of the recent acquisitions of Eu-

rope in the way of classic sculpture are put on exhibition without any restoration or piecing out whatever; as, for instance, the astounding Pergamon reliefs at Berlin, where not even shattered faces are in any way repaired; or as in Rome, where the newly found marbles housed in the Conservator's Palace on the Capitol are left armless or headless if found so; or as in Athens, where new discoveries are not uncommon, and where no repairs are made. This is the modern practice—not that it is of very recent origin, for it dates back three score years and ten; but unfortunately, it has only of late become general. The "Elgin marbles" have been let alone; no one has ever pieced out the "Theseus" with hands and feet, or tried to fit a head on the "Ilissus"; and yet they have been on exhibition in the British Museum for two generations of men. The Venus of Milo, although her pose is not unquestioned—both the placing of the base upon the pedestal, and the adjustment of the upper block forming the body to the lower one, being matters of dispute—has never been disguised by modern arms; and this statue has been in the Louvre for more than a half-century. Even in the Vatican, not the place to look for such wise restraint, the splendid draped statue in the long gallery (Museo Chiaramonti), generally known as a Niobide, remains headless and armless, although it was for nobody knows how long in private hands, and then in the Quirinal Garden. The Torso of the Belvedere and the so-called "Genius" in the Gallery of Statues will occur to every one who knows the Museum as being unrestored, although the one for three centuries and the other for a century have belonged to the Papal Museum. On the other hand, the practice in the Munich Glyptothek has always been complete restoration: arms, heads, helmets, feet, hands, and weapons are supplied to all comers to this museum, although it dates from within this nineteenth century, and the *Egina* sculptures were not renovated until after Lord Elgin's plunder had been brought to England and purchased by the nation. With less thoroughness, this has been done almost everywhere. A very brief inspection of the Louvre is enough to decide for us what the fashion is there. With few exceptions, as above noted, the Vatican sculptures are always made complete, besides being cleaned in a way to make one uneasy and suspicious; for the traditions of that great Museum are neatness and elegance, with not too great observance of archaeological purity.

If all the famous ancient statues of Europe should be, by common consent of their curators, stripped this winter of their non-original parts, next summer's flight of tourists would be stupefied at the appearance of some of their pet admirations. The Laocöon would be found without the father's right arm, which is thrusting away from him a great fold of the serpent, as if it were the bight of a hawser, and with no more life in it than such a hempen loop as that; and the two sons would lack, the one his right arm, the other his right hand and wrist. The Discobolus in the Vatican would have no head; and the modern athlete, accustomed to fix his eye on the mark when he aims his quoit or tennis ball, would certainly not be the man to restore the statue with a head placed like the duplicate statue in the British Museum; nor yet to follow the other duplicate in the Palazzo Massimo, with head screwed around to look after the discus; nor yet to retain the present head, with eyes turned on the ground near the feet of the quoit-thrower. The Biga, or two-horse chariot, in the same hall, would have neither horses nor wheels, and might almost be taken for that which it was made to serve for once—an arm-chair. The Medici Venus would

retain the stump of one arm, but almost no trace of the other; and assuredly the Tribune would seem less attractive to some travellers when its chief attraction to the Murray-guided tourist should be so changed from what Lord Byron saw and worshipped. Many hundred "Amazons," and "Cereses," and "Nymphs"; many hundred "Mercuries" and "Boxers" in all the great cities of Europe, would be divested of their distinguishing attributes, and would be reduced to their essential nature of good or excellent classic sculpture, not easy to give proper names to, but none the worse for that. Many hundred heads, arms, legs would be detached and left on hand, of which a very few, known to be ancient, though not hitherto in their right places on the bodies originally belonging to them, would still find places in the galleries; while the rest might be given to drawing-schools for models, for most of them are fairly good in anatomy.

The future is with the archaeologists; and a public opinion among those interested is developing itself, too strong for the lovers of neat and complete, though inauthentic, sculpture. For years past no restorations more extensive than feet and fingers have been undertaken, and such as they will soon become impossible. And evidently this state of things is to be worked for and hoped for. For, in very truth, no man has any right to thrust himself in between the student and his original. Let us suppose, for instance, that the "Venus of Milo" had been restored, forty years ago, as a Victory, on the model of the noble bronze statue at Brescia. There would have been something to say for that design—a certain resemblance between the statues is not the least argument in its favor. But the strong convictions of those who see in the statue a part of a group would then have been disregarded, and not justifiably; for, although when action is necessary the responsible actor must know how to disregard the reasons which make against his adopted course of action, in such a case as this no time can be set when action becomes necessary. Students were not agreed, forty years ago, as to the statue's original arms; they are not agreed now; they never will be agreed—unless the original arms should be found, rescued from that Turkish ship in which they sailed away from Melos. Now, in this case, as every one is accustomed to see the statue, or representations of it, armless, few persons will object to its being left so. Probably any attempted restoration of the original would offend even the advocates of that theory which might be followed in making it. But consider the other famous Venus, the heroine of Byron's verse, the adored of so many generations of tourists—the Medici Venus at Florence. This statue is, no doubt, a work of inferior value; the writer of this can heartily agree with that shrewd Scotch sculptor in Florence, who says that when his ideal students' collection of first-hand casts of a hundred or two hundred masterpieces shall be made, the statue in question shall not be included. But still there is merit in it. The long row of marble ladies standing in the same attitude on the stylobate at Naples are none of them so good, although it was perhaps from them, or from some of them, that Bernini took the position of the arms and hands when he added them to the Florence beauty. The Venus of the Capitol, alone among the statues which are known to be in the same attitude, is the equal, or rather the superior, of the Florence marble; and this work, unique in sculptural treatment, is almost alone in its perfect preservation. The Medici Venus, then, is neither the better nor the worse for all the uproar of three centuries, and is still worthy of a place where it can be

properly seen, in spite of the scraping and polishing the marble has undergone. Obviously, then, the arms should be removed, and this our children will see done. A cast, or a good copy, will preserve for them the memory of their fathers' idol.

This is an instance of a fairly judicious restoration. But it is easy to name vile ones—inexcusable blunders, or, more often, reckless puttings-together; hasty attempts to avoid the supposed impropriety of leaving broken sculptures broken. Consider the valuable archaic female statue at Venice, with heavy plaited drapery, in the attitude, as if walking, so characteristic of very early Greek statues. Upon this headless statue some restorer has mounted a pert nymph's head of late style, with hair elaborately dressed in a lofty top-knot. Or, as an instance of a more important work of art spoiled in the same way, take the group at Naples, the Harmodius and Aristogeiton—fine work of an early epoch. The striking warrior has his own head, with short-curl, knotted hair; but his friend who accompanies him, ready to parry and to ward, has received the addition of a head of much later time, good in itself, but of absurd appearance where it is—not merely its treatment being out of keeping, but its very pose and the action of the muscles of the neck contradicting the movement and purpose of the man. Or, what is to be said of the Farnese Bull of the same museum, "the largest piece of ancient sculpture in Italy," of which, as the principal figures are two young men, two women, and the bull, there are of modern work the head of the bull, the whole of one woman, the upper half of the other, and more than half of the two young men?—a restoration nearly as thoroughgoing as the above-mentioned Biga. A colossal marble bull without a head, and some traces and indications of human figures around him, is what the Museum should show as its original work found in the Baths of Caracalla, or elsewhere. A cast of the present group (which is a Renaissance design of spirit enough), and as many alternative restorations as room may be found for, or as sculptors of merit may propose, may be set up near it for comparison.

Some persons like the Barberini Faun better than perhaps the merit of that statue would justify. At all events, they should study the figure without the modern legs, for the whole of one leg, and of the other all, except some bits of the ancient marble inserted, are of yesterday. Take away, besides these, the half of one arm, a part of the other, the nose, together with part of the lion skin and supporting rock, and we have left a fine torso with only slightly injured head, just as it was hurled from the high platform of Hadrian's mausoleum on some day of siege and storm—a more respectable work of art, by far, than Kronprinz Ludwig's purchase, patched up now for the third time, and with no more certainty than at first of being rightly restored. But of all restorations, reparations, and transmogrifications, that inflicted upon the "Cnidian Venus" of the Vatican is the most grotesque. This may be to others, as to the writer, the loveliest statue of very young, of budding womanhood in Europe. It stands in a niche on the left as one enters the "Hall of the Greek Cross" from the great stairs, and, therefore, can be looked at from one point of view only. The workmanship is Greek, the marble is Greek, the vase, over which her drapery is thrown, is Greek; and all the ancient work is just as near perfection as human handiwork, even in Greek sculpture, commonly reaches. But, from the hips down, the statue is hidden, wrapped up, "mummy-fashion," as Braun says in his guide-book, with metal-like drapery; and the right forearm and hand are restored in such

fashion that the hand holds up this mass of clothing. What makes it the more inartistic is that the drapery thrown over the vase is complete in itself, so that two nearly equal masses of stuff are held up side by side. What makes it the more unlearned, the more unarchæological is, that the statue is named the Cnidian Venus, *nemine contradicente*, on account of its resemblance to the medals which preserve for us some recollection of Praxiteles's famous work, and that that figure is undraped. When Italy comes to her own, we shall see this inestimable statue set upon a revolving pedestal, like her sister in the Capitol Museum—or, at least, put up in the middle of a room as the Belvedere Torso is—and that without her stucco costume.

It should be remembered that the presence of clever and probable restorations, however acknowledged and however visible, is apt to mislead even the somewhat careful student. Writers who, like Mr. Symonds (to take a notable instance and a good one, for no such writer is more conscientious or more prudent), are accustomed to compare one art with another, or art with literature, in the search for light upon thought and upon human nature in classic times, are always in danger of reasoning from the completed statue or group, as if all parts of it were equally authentic. The ancient torso, with limbs and a nose of good modern work, accepted as a complete work of art by too many students during several generations, has become a complete work of art in the mind of the man who, at a distance and recalling his strong impressions, seeks to draw from them conclusions and beliefs which will be based upon not quite trustworthy material. Even professedly archæological writers are misled in that way. Our books of examples give us, as authentic ancient work, much-restored statues; and even one of the latest, Mr. Murray's 'Greek Sculpture before Phidias,' will be found to give an illustration of the Harmodius and Aristogeiton of Naples with the wrongly-adjusted head, described above, as if an original part of the statue to which it is attached. It will be said that a remedy for the mischief of restoration is found in giving an exact account of the restorations made. And this would be a good way if there were not a better—that is, the simple leaving them *not* made. Little by little the museums of Europe are coming into line, with more or less complete statements as to the mischief done. The Louvre has it in a little framed poster on each pedestal. The Capitol Museum, the Dresden Museum, and some others—alas! too few—have it clearly set forth in their catalogues. The Uffizzi catalogue has it, sometimes in the text, sometimes in a note, in such fashion that one is never sure whether to expect it when most needed. The catalogue of the Munich Glyptothek is the model one in this respect: every modern scrap is carefully indicated and described, and the judicious author has something to say by way of criticism of the more unfortunate instances of mistaken addition. But half the museums are without catalogues at present, leaving the student to imagine what fine ones his successors will have to guide them when their turn comes.

The Dresden Museum of Antiques in the Japanese Palace is not too admirable in the condition of its works of art; the German guide-books even agree as to the *ergänzt* condition of most of its sculptures. But its perhaps most valuable, certainly most curious possession, the archaic Athene, with the heavily embroidered border hanging down the front of her *peplos*, is unaltered. Two pedestals stand out in the room, well toward the windows; the one supports the original, a sadly-broken and defective statue, though what remains is in good condition,

neither defaced nor much discolored; the other holds up, for comparison with it, a restoration by Rauch—his conception of what the original must have been. This is what all must come to. No great museum can afford to go on much longer with its sham antiques, built up with a classical nucleus and a bewildering crowd of modern additions to confuse the student. The restored models will be based upon accurate casts of the original; as many different ones will be set up as seem worthy of consideration. Some museums will have them side by side with the original, for better comparison; others, with a sense of the higher dignity of the original, will relegate the studies of restoration to separate halls. And the catalogues will contain each modern sculptor's arguments for his own theory of what the original was when complete. But the marble itself shall have added to it neither nose nor finger, nor lip of vase, nor fold of drapery. If a limb is found broken off, and the edges fit perfectly, it may be attached, the catalogue calling attention to the repair. If a piece of a limb be found not capable of direct fitting into place, like the forearm and hand where the upper arm is lost, a metal bar may connect the member with the trunk at about its proper place. Where feet or legs (of a standing statue) are lost, the figure may be held at its proper height above the pedestal upon metal bars, or the pedestal may be shaped out, or may support a pilaster or block, to do the same office. But no completing of the statue or of any part of it will be allowed, whether in marble, or in plaster, wood, or papier-mâché.

R. STURGIS.

THE LASKER SENSATION.

BERLIN, February 28.

THE so called American "incident," viz., the return of the resolution of your House of Representatives, passed in honor of the late Mr. Lasker, by Prince Bismarck, has created general sensation all over Germany. On the whole, it is rather severely criticised by the independent press and political circles, which reject it as an unnecessary measure. The official papers, on the contrary, and the blind believers in the Chancellor, have done and are still doing everything in their power to obscure the real state of affairs, and, by raising side issues, to save at least appearances.

So far as the merits of the case are concerned, I agree with those who blame the Chancellor for having acted in so spiteful a way. What are the facts? The popular branch of the legislative body of a friendly nation, by an act of courtesy, send words of condolence to the family of a prominent political man, and to the parliamentary body in which he had won his distinction. They order it forwarded in the only possible way which diplomatic etiquette provides, and turn it over to the Secretary of State with the request to have it communicated "through the legitimate channels" to the presiding officer of the Reichstag. Mr. Frelinghuysen thereupon instructed the Berlin Minister to act accordingly. The latter had to deliver it through our Foreign Office, as he is excluded from direct intercourse with the other departments of the Empire. Thus Mr. Sargent was correct in every respect, and I am sure Bismarck would have accused the American Minister of a breach of etiquette if he had written directly to the President of the Reichstag. The Chancellor then goes on to say that he must solicit the authorization of the Emperor to communicate the resolution of the House to the President of the Reichstag. This is the first time that we hear of the existence of such a rule. When, a year ago, German-American citizens sent from the United States large sums of money to our Foreign

Office, in aid of the sufferers by the inundations of the Rhine and Moselle, Bismarck did not hesitate for a moment to transmit them immediately to the Reichstag. I even presume he would also have delivered the resolution directly if the House had declared that in the death of Lasker they deplored the loss of one of the most faithful supporters of the Chancellor's policy; but it offended him that the deceased parliamentarian was praised for "his firm and constant exposition of and devotion to free and liberal ideas, which had materially advanced the social, political, and economic condition of our people." This opinion the Chancellor flatly contradicts, as not congruent with the development of the German people. He would, perhaps, not have done so if he had taken the trouble more fully to appreciate the meaning of the English words *free* and *liberal*, which signify more than party spirit is able to understand. History will judge more justly; but, however that may be, this difference of interpretation and feeling does not entitle the gentleman at the head of foreign affairs to withhold and return a document which was intrusted to him as the first public officer.

It is true, the wording of Bismarck's instructions to Mr. von Eisendecher is in its tone polite and friendly, but in its spirit it is small, pettifoggish, and wholly unworthy of so prominent a statesman as the Chancellor. It is a melancholy fact that he gave vent to his personal feelings; but the opportunity of killing three birds with one stone was too tempting for him. His first victim was Mr. Sargent, your Berlin Minister. Bismarck dislikes him for his despatch in relation to the prohibition of imports of American pork. Since that time the former is no longer received at the Foreign Office, and has to carry on his diplomatic business in writing. The subordinates of that department, perceiving from what direction the wind blows, turn Mr. Sargent the cold shoulder, and his brother diplomatists, in order to please the Chancellor, also treat him coldly. Add to this the Minister's ignorance of all modern languages, except his mother tongue, and you will understand that he finds himself in a very unpleasant and isolated position. The purport of these annoyances is, of course, to worry him out of his place. Whether your Minister will resign, as it is hoped and expected, I, of course, do not know. Well-meaning papers, like the *Cologne Gazette*, advise him to apply to his Government for his recall and for another correspondingly high position; but they overlook the fact that your civil service is based on altogether different principles.

The second stroke was aimed at the late Mr. Lasker. The Chancellor is a sound hater, and he has proved himself so to none more than to this influential parliamentarian. Lasker's "doctrinairism"; his logical deduction, dictated more by legal than by political considerations; his cold reserve and stiff manners, never softened by hearty laughter or wit and humor, were always irritating if not offensive to the impetuous and aggressive character of Bismarck. It was antagonism between the jurist and the statesman. Up to 1879, when the latter returned to his old political friends and convictions, there existed a sort of political intercourse and even exchange of civilities between them. Lasker supported the Chancellor in all his great measures, but he reserved to himself the right of weighing them by his own standard, and of criticising them mercilessly. From 1880, however, to 1878, Bismarck had to submit to Lasker's often insupportable patronage, in order to keep him on his side, but he groaned impatiently under this restraint. I very well remember the time when the parliamentarian was flattered by the Chancellor, when

the latter ostentatiously courted him at his receptions and provoked the envy of courtiers and diplomatists, who could not understand why Bismarck paid so much attention to the "little Jew" who had from 150 to 180 men behind him. On one occasion the Chancellor said to Lasker that he anticipated his becoming his colleague, whereupon the latter archly replied: "Does your Highness intend to become a lawyer?" This was, of course, in 1873 or 1874. After 1879 the contrast between the two men was aggravated by the political diversion of the Chancellor. He now made Lasker and his political friends responsible for all the shortcomings and failures of his plans. "The worst crises," he once said, "have always been caused by Lasker. If it had not been for him, I should never have thought of resigning. It was he who, reasoning and acting from a lawyer-like standpoint, destroyed some of my best plans, who paved the way for several triumphs of the Ultramontane party, and who even tried to prescribe to me how Alsace-Lorraine ought to be governed."

Thirdly, and not least, it is the Reichstag against which the return of the resolution of the House is directed. Whatever Bismarck can do to break its great moral and small political influence he does. He seizes each and every opportunity of discrediting it. His press organs are directed methodically to degrade it in public opinion. On the other hand, he cannot govern without it, and above all things he is not powerful enough to abolish universal suffrage, which he introduced himself. So he must content himself with smaller political adventures, as, for instance, the attempt to combine universal suffrage with open voting. In the meantime the Conservative press is ordered to speak of the Reichstag in a depreciating tone, and to represent its Liberal members as a lot of tricksters, who, led merely by party considerations, prevent the Chancellor from carrying out his large schemes, and from benefiting the people as fully as he wishes.

These Liberal members intend to move for a resolution of thanks to the Washington House of Representatives when the Reichstag convenes on March 6. Whether a motion of this or a similar character can be carried is rather doubtful, as the vote of the Centre will be dictated by the general state of public affairs. If they can reasonably expect to make political capital out of this vote, they of course will reject the motion and stand on the side of Bismarck; but, even taking it for granted that the Liberals will be defeated, they regard it as their duty not to keep silent, and eventually to refer the question to the Committee on Rules and Regulations for ultimate settlement.

It requires some self-restraint to mention in a few closing words the tone and comments of the official press. All the hounds of the Reptile Fund have been let loose to manifest their meanness coupled with ignorance. The *Deutsches Tageblatt*, the organ of our princely and baronial agrarians, vies with Bismarck's official paper, the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, in blackguardism and false representations or frivolous attacks. The former says that Mr. Sargent is a corrupt speculator and railroad swindler, laden with the curses of numberless victims. The other accuses your House of Representatives of having turned Lasker's death to account for party purposes. The followers of the same class of writers attack the resolution as an interference with German home matters; others again pretend, in high-sounding terms, that the whole is an American electioneering trick. Such is the ignorance of these penny-a-liners that they believe that the Republicans of the House resorted to their compliments to Lasker, in order to maintain their power at the next Presi-

dential election. They do not know that the Democrats already hold the majority in the present House, and that they will, of course, not vote or work against themselves, while the Republicans are still in the possession of all the other branches of the Government.

The most ridiculous part of the whole story is, that these identical papers, in order to give their knowingly false statements a still more sensational character, not only say that Mr. Sargent went for information to the Free Trade, Liberal, and Radical parties, but also insolently intimate that the whole resolution of your House was made here by members of the Reichstag who write and speak English, and sent to Washington, with directions to have it adopted at once and sent back to the Chancellor. Now, the death of Mr. Lasker became known here on January 6, and the resolution was passed on January 9; but such minor details are of no account to these newsmongers. The less likely their slanders are, the better they are paid for them.

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THE YOUTH OF MICHELET.

PARIS, February 23.

MME. MICHELET has collected with the greatest care all the papers of her illustrious husband. She informs us, in the preface of a book entitled 'My Youth,' that this work was made from notes left by him with a view to the publication of memoirs of his life. Michelet made a first attempt of this sort in 1820. He had a dear friend, Paul Poinson, and began his autobiography chiefly for him. Poinson died in 1821, and Michelet thought of other things. "Time advances," he wrote in 1864; "I shall probably never compose my memoirs, but I will leave all the elements of it in my notes, in my journals, which I have written with regularity since 1838; in the programmes of my books, in my inedited lectures at the Collège de France, where I so often brought before my public a heart bleeding with the wounds of my country and with its own wounds." Michelet was a solitary man; he did not live in the world, and he wrote much, he said, "pro remedio anime meæ."

What, exactly, is Mme. Michelet's part in this volume, which is the biography of Michelet during his youth? It would be difficult to say. Mme. Michelet thinks it necessary to give some details about herself. She was born at Montauban; her grandfather was born in Auvergne; her mother was a creole of Louisiana. She was married to Michelet at the beginning of the Second Empire. She found herself at once very poor, as Michelet refused to take the oath to the new régime, and lost all his places at the Collège de France and at the Archives. His books, which had been used in the colleges of the French University, were struck off the list. He had no fortune, and he left Paris with his young wife. They lived in the country, and Mme. Michelet became the only pupil of the eloquent professor. She was devoted to him, and she charmed his exile from Paris. One day, she reports, he said to her: "My mind will owe to you its greatest joy in this world—a joy which assimilates man to God. I took you half awake from the hands of nature, and I have been your Prometheus." He could not live out of her sight. She was his second wife. His first marriage had not been a happy one, for his first wife had a cerebral disease. Michelet's nature was all tenderness and gentleness; it was essentially poetical. "With women," he said, "the ideal ought to be always mixed up with the real." Michelet was much older than his second wife, who was his pupil, his confidante, his solace. This perfect community of sentiment will not help us to answer the question which I put a moment ago—Where

begins and where ends the part of Michelet in this autobiography? Let us take it as it is, as a sort of mixed work, without troubling ourselves too much about its precise origin.

The father of Michelet was a Picard, born in the town of Laon; his grandfather was a professor of music and *maître de chapelle* in the Cathedral Church. Laon, with its many churches, built on a hill, may be called a clerical city. Michelet's father became in his youth a great favorite with the priests and the nuns; his family intended to make a priest of him. He was presented to the Abbé de Bourbon, a natural son of Louis XV. and of Mme. de Romans. "The Abbé, a young prince twenty-three years old, with half a million of ecclesiastical revenues, very handsome, amiable, and worldly, was at his toilet, half powdered. He rose, took my father into his cabinet, talked to him, found in him a man of the world, without any ecclesiastical vocation. He patted him on the shoulder: 'Very well, my friend, very well, I am pleased with you. I make you a Canon.'" The French Revolution decided his fate otherwise. Michelet's father went to Paris, where he arrived a month after the famous massacres of September. He became a printer, and was first employed in the printing of the *assignats*. After the 9th Thermidor, the revolution which put an end to the atrocious rule of Robespierre, he bought a printing-office and ceased to be a mere workman. Michelet was born in 1798. His family lived in the Rue Saint Denis, in a church which had once belonged to the Hôtel Saint-Chaumont (where the Duc de la Feuillade cast in secret the bronze equestrian statue of Louis XIV. which he offered to the King, and which stood on the site of the one that now adorns the Place des Victoires). The church was now empty and served as a printing-office. The child was born in the very choir, and his father named him Jules. "If the Republic lasts," he said, "it will be Julius Cæsar; if Catholicism triumphs, it will be Pope Julius."

Young Michelet was very delicate, nervous, of an extraordinary sensibility, timid, full of imagination. His father was very poor; printing was not encouraged after the excesses of the French Revolution. He soon found himself in great difficulties. The family left the Rue Saint-Denis and settled on the other side of the Seine, in the Rue des Saints-Pères; Michelet remembered having often suffered there from cold and from hunger. He remembered a usurer who had lent money to his father, and who often came to insult and threaten him. One day he learned that his father had been arrested and sent to the Prison of Sainte-Pélagie. At that period Michelet, in his dark home in the Rue des Saints-Pères, in his extreme poverty, found, he says, a great solace in religion. He had received no religious instruction—his parents had forgotten to have him baptized. His father had the philosophical notions of the end of the eighteenth century; the boy was never taken to church, and was afraid of the black vestments of the priests. "The utter neglect in instructing me was precisely what helped me. In the great distress in which we found ourselves, a solitary instinct inclined me to open a book of piety. It was the 'Imitation of Christ,' preceded by the service of the mass. How shall I describe the state of dream into which I was thrown by the first words of this book? These dialogues between God and a suffering soul, as was mine, touched me profoundly. . . . I heard . . . as if a soft and paternal voice had spoken to myself."

What suffering soul, bleeding from hidden wounds, broken under the weight of life, tired to death, has not found a bitter solace and, by degrees, a sort of rest in this miraculous work,

the 'Imitation'? Michelet had a pure and poetical mind, and was able to feel and to receive, as it were, its beauty; he saw, at the end of this painful life, deliverance and hope; he learned the fortifying virtue of solitude. During all his life he remained, in a certain sense, solitary. He experienced religion in a purely abstract manner, without any human intermediary, without the assistance of any priest. "Religion," said he, "thus remained a thing which was mine; it remained free, so well mixed with my life that it could feed with me and fortify itself on the road with a number of tender and holy things in art and in poetry—things which are often erroneously thought independent of it."

The 'Imitation,' however, has its dangers: it produces indifference, a languid contempt of realities; it acts on the soul as opium acts on the nerves. But Michelet was too young to feel its dangers. His father, after a while, left the prison into which a hard creditor had thrown him. He made a composition with him, and opened a new printing-office. The printing was chiefly done by the family—by the old grandfather, by the mother as well as by the father. Young Michelet became himself a printer. He worked in a cellar, on the Boulevard Saint-Martin. At the age of twelve he was sent to school and learned a little Latin. He found a friend, and began to open his eyes on the world, to inquire about the Emperor Napoleon, his perpetual wars, the conscription which took generation after generation. "Nothing," he says, "better helped me to understand the dark monotony of the middle ages, the expectation without a hope, without a desire, except the desire of death, so well as the languid years which, as a child, I spent during the last period of the Empire." He had no holidays or Sundays; he was kept all day at the printing-office.

After the disasters of the Russian campaign, a decree reduced the number of printers to sixty. The printing-office of Michelet's father was shut with an official seal. Once more the family were ruined. His mother fell ill. His father decided, nevertheless, that the boy should leave school and enter a lycée. The Lycée Charlemagne is still one of the great lycées in Paris. Young Michelet, timid and awkward as he was, thrown among hundreds of rude boys, was at first very unhappy. "Cet âge est sans pitié," says Lafontaine. The genus "boy" develops all its most hateful characteristics in a Parisian lycée. The beginnings were hard, but Michelet soon found himself, somewhat to his own astonishment, at the head of the class. "On the 3d of May, an admirable spring day, King Louis XVIII. made his first entry in Paris, where his brother had preceded him. We were at school; we heard the distant guns of Vincennes. Somebody said, 'It is the return of the Bourbons.' We looked at each other; we did not know them." Long years of revolution and of war had unnerved France and destroyed all interest in the affairs of the country. Never had the Michelet family been so miserable. Michelet tells us that he often left home for his lycée with an empty stomach. He was sixteen years old, and he never ate any meat; he sometimes felt the effects of inanition during his lessons. He was not allowed to grow; he remained all his lifetime weak and frail. It is difficult to imagine what his genius would have been if his body had been more robust, and if hunger had not been one of the torments of his youth.

In 1815 he lost his grandfather and his mother. His studies were constantly disturbed by domestic troubles, and also by political events. The return of Napoleon from Elba, Waterloo, the occupation of Paris by the Allies—such events produced an immense perturbation even in the colleges. Michelet's father, after the death of

his wife, entered as assistant an asylum for lunatics kept by a Doctor Duchemin. Nothing can be more injurious to a young mind than contact with insane people. Young Michelet spent three years in this house of Doctor Duchemin, with his father; he only felt at first the pleasure of a little comfort, which to him was a novelty, but he did not long remain insensible to the sufferings which were hidden in his new abode.

Michelet had a great triumph at the end of his classical studies: he obtained the first prize of rhetoric at the *concours général* (an annual competition of the best scholars of all the lycées of Paris). The crown was given to him by the hero of the day, the Duc de Richelieu, who, owing to his great friendship with the Emperor Alexander of Russia, had succeeded in keeping for France Alsace and Lorraine, after the defeat at Waterloo. The young Michelet was almost overpowered by his own success; he was presented by M. Vilemain to the Count Decazes and to the Duc de Richelieu. Was he a royalist? He did not himself know at the time. His father had seen Louis XVI. in the prison of the Temple, and had been moved with pity by the misfortunes of the royal family. He was not a Bonapartist—he was sure of that; but, so far, he had not chosen his party. He was drawn to literature more than to politics; he became a tutor in a school, and was able to earn his bread. The most humble position appeared to him like a paradise. He began to read Rousseau with much enthusiasm; the sentimentality of Rousseau, his love of nature, were powerful attractions. It can be said, on the whole, that the development of the mind of Michelet was very slow, and the young teacher of the Institution Briand had much to learn before he became the renovator of historical studies in France and the powerful assistant of the great Romantic school.

Correspondence.

THE CASE OF JUDGE LOCKE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was very much surprised and disappointed on reading your article upon the proposed impeachment of Judge Locke, appearing in your issue of February 28—surprised, because, from reading your paper some fifteen years, I had come to regard it as generally fair and just, which in this instance it is not; and disappointed, because of your ready credence and acceptance as true of charges as yet not proven nor even answered. Your comments upon such conduct as is charged against Judge Locke are very entertaining and pointed, and the moral you draw from the premises as stated by you is very just, only—the premises are false; and it really seems to me that upon their face the charges have an appearance suspicious enough to cause hesitation in accepting them as true. That Judge Locke will be completely exonerated upon investigation is confidently believed by his friends and by those acquainted with the facts; but after that is done, hundreds who have read your pungent articles will not notice it or hear of it, while your pointed criticisms will remain in their recollection, prejudicing them against Judge Locke, and perhaps against the whole judiciary. You thus do Judge Locke a great injury, and with a class whose good opinion and esteem is worth having—for such are your readers. I will therefore state for your information a few facts in the case, trusting to your own sense of right to do what justice requires.

Judge Locke was appointed District Judge in 1872, upon the recommendation of both Republicans and Democrats. The entire bar of the district at that time were Democrats, with a single exception, and they all joined in asking his appointment. He surrendered a practice and business far more profitable than the office he accepted, and resigned the political offices which he then held. From that day he has filled the position of Judge with satisfaction to the members of the bar and litigants, both in this district and in others where he has sat by assignment. When it was rumored that these charges were to be made against him, the lawyers of the district, unsolicited, joined in a testimonial as to his character, and among them were both Democrats and Republicans. Even you, a year ago, had a word of praise for the manner in which he vindicated the honor of the court in a case of disbarment. But, as the *Savannah News* says, he was not "satisfactory to some Federal office-holders" and politicians. Time and again he has refused to create an army of deputy marshals for use of the "bosses" at the polls. In no way would he let his court be used as a tool by the local "boss" (a Collector of Customs, from New York); and therefore he is made to suffer—not impeachment: there is no danger of that—but the gibes and sarcasms of the press and the notoriety of this investigation.

As to the substance of the charges, I would say that handing \$25 on one single occasion—for there is but one such charge—to a politician, to help along a local campaign, is not "improperly approaching and influencing voters." To contribute to the expenses of a campaign is a right which any man, whether a judge or not, may exercise as suits him. If the Judge had paid assessments to the local "boss," probably nothing would have been heard of this!

2d. The records of the court show that the ship *St. James* was wrecked in November, 1871. At that time Judge Locke had not been appointed as Judge, and owned one-half of a small twelve-ton schooner, the *Pelican*, engaged in sponging. She went to the wreck and saved forty bars of railroad iron, which was labelled for salvage in January, 1872. Five months after the salvage service was rendered, Judge Locke was appointed, and entered upon the duties of his office. He immediately sold his interest in the *Pelican*, and the records show that that one-half which he had owned neither applied for nor received one cent of salvage; and in the decree delivered by him it is especially stated that half of the *Pelican* should receive no salvage. Neither the Judge nor the person to whom he sold his interest received one cent for her work at the wreck, though many lawyers and others at the time thought that the Judge was over-scrupulous in not decreeing her salvage, as the service was rendered before he was on the bench. Now, twelve years afterward, this false charge is trumped up in the shape in which it appears in your columns. The contributing \$25 toward a Republican campaign was also in 1872, twelve years ago. Strange that it has only just been discovered.

3d. The charge of "pawnbroking" is totally false, and is made, not with any expectation of being sustained, but simply to smirch the Judge's good name. I have in my possession an affidavit of the person named in the charge as the pawnner denying the charge, and it will be presented when wanted; I send you a copy of it. It was made last year at the time the Collector of Customs here first started the story.

4th. The charge of illicit dealing in tobacco is of the same nature. It was made in malice by the Collector of Customs last summer, was investigated by the Internal Revenue Depart-

ment, and decided in favor of Judge Locke. That he lent a friend money is true, but it was to accommodate him; that he was secured by tobacco in the bonded warehouse is true, but it was a legitimate transaction, not conflicting with the Judge's duties, and, as an investment even, was as fair as any ever made by any one in land, houses, or stocks, tobacco being a staple article here. That these loans were made from the Judge's private means, no one who knows what a judge's salary is can doubt.

Your conclusion that the assessment of \$46.88 was a "political" one is also erroneous. It was part of the inquiry into the tobacco business asking him why he should not pay that amount for a license as a dealer. He showed to the satisfaction of the Department why he should not be considered as a dealer, as their records show, and the enclosed copy of letters.

I would now ask you carefully if two such loans as these, made to friends as an accommodation, during a period of twelve years, warrant an accusation of "eking out his scanty income by pawnbroking and usury and by illicit dealing in tobacco"; yet you have held him up to your readers in that light.

I enclose you certain documents substantiating my statements above, and while I cannot ask you to devote your space to the publication of all this, I think that in justice you should let your readers know that there are two sides to the question; and, in justice to the accused, a man known by all his acquaintances to be ever scrupulous and conscientious, devoted to the duties of his position and jealous of its dignity, as is shown by the stand he took in disbarring an attorney in the face of universal public prejudice two years ago, you should set aside your finding, for newly discovered evidence, and not help tarnish the good name of one who has no other fortune.

Of the character of his accusers and their motives much could be said that would throw considerable light upon political affairs in this section, showing how "satraps" are sent out from the central government to control the Republican "provinces", the manner in which they try to do it; the way the Government patronage is distributed; the way Republican "bosses" and Bourbon "colonels" combine to beat and cheat the decent men of both parties. But I will not seem to try to make out my case by abusing others, but will withhold my experience with the political ringsters until some future day, when, if the good of Republicanism and the community requires it, I can make some revelations that will astonish those unfamiliar with politics in "Dixie."

I will only add that I write this without the knowledge of Judge Locke, who is absent holding court in Tampa. With full confidence that you will be willing to do justice in this matter, I remain your constant reader, and in all cases but this, your admirer.

EUGENE O. LOCKE.

KEY WEST, FLA., MARCH 11, 1884.

[We never undertook to prejudge the case, but referred to the charges which are on file at Washington and are a perfectly legitimate subject for comment by any newspaper. The discussion of them will not injure the Judge if he is innocent, but will merely cover his enemies with confusion.—ED. NATION.]

CASH AND THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 947 of the *Nation*, you intimate that in South Carolina the society is not really

civilized; that the great part of the citizens of this State who pass as "gentlemen" are "drunken, armed ruffians"—criminals, indeed, who "run loose till they commit deliberate, unprovoked murder." The individual case on which you were commenting does not justify such general inferences as you drew from it. I enclose a statement clipped from the *News and Courier* to prove this. It shows that the Executive power of the State is doing its duty to bring the criminal to justice. It shows that it was not the fault of our State Government that this criminal was allowed to run loose until he committed deliberate, unprovoked murder, but that it is the fault of the United States Government, whose authorities had taken him out of the custody of the State and had set him free.

Are our people to be continually calumniated as allowing crime to go unpunished, when the United States Government fosters a crowd of lawless, unprincipled employees in our midst, and protects them in their lawless deeds from local justice? When one in the employ of the United States Government commits a crime here, he simply carries his case to the Federal Court and feels that he is safe from punishment. Will you not raise your voice against this evil?

We thank you for your good intentions in trying to correct the evil of unpunished homicide, and we do not, in any case, sympathize with or try to excuse criminals; but we think that you have done the people of South Carolina an injustice, and that you should do all in your power to correct it. And as you have begun to comment on the W. B. Cash affair, you ought not to drop it leaving a wrong impression upon the minds of your readers. The Government and people of South Carolina are showing, as plainly as can be shown, that they do not "bolster up such people" in their acts of violence.

W. Z.

STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA, March 10, 1884.

[We append a part of the extract referred to. Meantime, the elder Cash has been set free on a ridiculous bail, and the pursuit of his son has, it is said, been given over.—ED. NATION.]

"CASH'S POLITICAL ANTECEDENTS.—No doubt the Stalwart organs at the North are rioting in glee on account of the doings of W. B. Cash, assumed by them to be a typical South Carolina Democrat. It is but just to Mr. Cash and the aforementioned organs, therefore, to let it be known that Mr. W. Bogan Cash is not a Democrat, but an 'Independent' or Republican, lately or now in the employ of the United States Government. W. Bogan Cash is the same man who was arrested here last spring for assaulting without justification an old and feeble Democrat from Fairfield County. He is the same man who was held by the State authorities for carrying concealed weapons here in defiance of State law. He is the same man who was defended before the Mayor and before the trial justice by Mr. William Penn Snider, special counsel for the United States in the election cases. He is the same man who was taken out of the custody of the State by the United States authorities, for the reason that he held a deputy marshal's commission while he attempted to terrorize old men in this quiet town. He is the same man who, immediately after his release from State control, acted as a spy in Chester County and arrested white Democrats. His forfeited pistols, which were taken from the State by the United States authorities, were doubtless returned to him, and it is not improbable that he killed Marshal Richards with one of them.

N. G. G."

EXCESSIVE LEGISLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The people of this country have endured so long the unscientific methods of law-making practised by our legislatures that it is not probable that much immediate good will result from general recognition of the evil of over-pro-

duction of statutes. But the evil is so great and, to those familiar with the application of written law to every-day affairs, so apparent, that in the end good must result from the discussion of it. When the people understand that the number of laws the passage of which a legislator obtains is not the measure of his excellence, the unhappy fecundity of the brains of our manufacturers of statutes may be checked. Among the many abuses which affect the making of laws, the influence of merely local considerations is not the least. While constitutional provisions may do much to remedy this evil, it is important that the people should remember that the causes which in time past have produced laws ridiculous in their local character, may produce other effects of a similar kind. But in most of the States the evil complained of exists without check other than such as may be afforded by public opinion; and public opinion must be educated up to an appreciation of some of the common-sense rudimentary principles of statute-making.

The uncle of the honorable member from the Township of Squirrel-track in Sawdust County has lost a fence which was fired by sparks from a railway locomotive. A heifer belonging to the son-in-law of the uncle of the honorable member from Squirrel-track, having walked through another fence, more or less rotten, has been killed by the same locomotive. What is the result? That the honorable member, his public spirit aroused by these little family misfortunes, obtains the passage of a bill regulating the matter of fences along the lines of railways throughout the State? Not so! What does the honorable member from Sawdust County care for the fences and the heifers of the uncles and of the sons-in-law of the uncles of honorable members from other counties? Let those honorable members look out for the fences and the heifers of their own uncles and of their own uncles' sons-in-law. But his private spirit is aroused; and the bill which he introduces, and which his fellow-statesmen pass, provides that the company owning the locomotive which has made havoc with the property of his uncle and of his uncle's son-in-law, shall keep up fences along its line—in the Township of Squirrel-track in the County of Sawdust. That is enough for the protection of his uncle and his uncle's son-in-law.

Under similar circumstances, other laws of like character are passed, each confined in its operation within narrow geographical limits, and each differing in important details from all the others. They may accomplish good results within those limits. Any radical member who suspects that they may not be based upon sound principles of legislation, lulls the suspicion with the conclusive argument that, as each bill will accomplish good results, to oppose it would be wrong. In the end, several local statutes are passed upon a subject as to which the law of the State should be uniform. No man knows, without careful investigation, whether his fence and his neighbor's fence stand under the same or under different laws. Instead of the single compact statute which should control, the people have eleven inharmonious local laws, regulating the matter in four counties and in parts of three counties, out of twenty-three.

A brief review of the laws of Pennsylvania upon the subject of fences and cattle-guards along the lines of railways will show that the imaginary laws just described are not much more absurd than those to be found in the statute-books. In that State are seven statutes requiring railway companies to provide fences and cattle-guards. Each of two of these requires one specified railway company to build and keep in repair in one specified county "sufficient and lawful fences," and, at all "public crossings," "good and sufficient" cattle-guards.

Each of three of the rest provides for the building and the keeping up of fences in one specified county by all railway companies having lines in that county. The three differ so in detail that a full comparison of them would take no small amount of labor. Two of them require companies to build cattle-guards at all crossings. One of these two provides for, and one does not provide for, the maintaining of cattle-guards after they are built. Of the two remaining acts, each is supplementary to one or another of those already mentioned. One of the supplementary acts extends one of the special county statutes to three additional counties. Here, then, are seven local statutes upon a subject of a character essentially not local, the seven affecting eight counties, and establishing four distinct systems of law. Why, this is the very March madness of law-making! And all these statutes except two were passed within about a year of one another, so that the Legislature must have known of the existence of those already passed.

This case is taken as typical. The statute-books of other States than Pennsylvania will show many such cases.—Very truly yours,

JAMES PRYOR.

21 COURTLANDT STREET,
NEW YORK, March 12, 1884.

THE INDIAN QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The leading article in a late number of the *Morning Star*, a little paper published at the Indian Training School, Carlisle, Pa., upon the subject of educating and civilizing the Indian race, closes with the following words: "Must it always be *en masse* or not at all?" I consider this the keynote to the complete settlement of the Indian problem. The thing to do is, in brief, just exactly the reverse of what our Government has always done. Instead of keeping the Indians shut up on reservations, isolated from civilizing influences, let us teach them our life by bringing them in direct contact with civilization as we understand it.

The first thing to do is to pass a general law applicable to all Indians, providing that their homesteads shall be inalienable for a term of years, as is now provided by treaty with a few tribes. Nearly all Indians are incompetent to manage their business affairs, and the Government will have to watch over them as wards in fact, and the way to do it is to pass this law. The few who may be competent will have to suffer some inconvenience for the good of the many. The term of years for which the homesteads should be inalienable might be longer or shorter for different Indians, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Interior and Commissioner of Indian Affairs—none for less than ten years, however; or, the law might permit certain Indians to sell one-fourth part of their allotments after ten years, provided the sale was ordered in each instance by the Secretary or Commissioner. It was the failure to have such a law that has ruined so many Indians after they had got fairly started to live rightly and their lands had been patented to them.

After the law making the homesteads of the Indians inalienable is passed and in operation (but not before), let the Government proceed to abolish all Indian reservations by opening for settlement alternate sections throughout the Indian country, in order that the Indians may learn from the example of their white neighbors the superiority of the white man's manner of living. Right here I fear the party of good intentions, but likewise the party that is most unacquainted with the Indian people, will rise up and with tongue and pen—they are mostly people who know how to use both weapons—de-

nounce this suggestion as an attempt to perpetrate another great wrong upon the Indians. But I maintain that it is for the good of the Indians that I would do the thing I now propose. It might be advisable for the Secretary of the Interior to invite religious societies to colonize (under the homestead law, of course) the sections taken away from the Indians. I think it would be a very good thing indeed to make some effort to get a good class of people to occupy these sections—people who would at least be disposed to do the Indians simple justice in any and all disputes which might arise between the two races.

Most tribes have a great deal more land in their reservations than they need or can use; and if the Government secures permanently to each individual Indian a homestead, and helps him with houses, with stock, and with implements, to establish himself upon that homestead, it is enough. It is not proposed to take away from them a single section that is now acknowledged to be theirs without paying them for it; and the fund accruing to them from the sections so taken would be ample to establish each head of a family, at least, upon his homestead, give him a few head of stock, and subsidize the tribe while getting started and as long as they ought to be aided in that way, and leave a fund for the support of their schools. From this fund also could be provided the proportion which the Indians ought in justice to the community to pay for the building of roads and bridges, and, where necessary, irrigating canals. To do all this Congress need not, and ought not to, appropriate a single dollar except in payment for the sections taken away from the Indians. A few tribes may need a little additional aid, but the most will not.

Of course it is expected that the Government would see, and that philanthropic people would help it to see, that the moneys due the Indians were honestly expended in the way indicated. And, I ask, could any people demand more than this from any government? If these things are honestly done, in all kindness, as it is intended they shall be, and it appears that the Indian cannot endure civilization even under such favorable circumstances, and is destined to become extinct, the most scrupulous humanitarian can find no cause for complaint. The Indians would still need to have agents, with their force of employees, for a few years, to instruct them in farming and the care of stock; to see that they received what was due and sent them by the Government; and to see that they suffered no injustice from their white neighbors or from each other—in other words, to see that they received justice in the courts. It is true that it would require some force to carry out this plan for civilizing Indians; but the time has come when the Indian people ought to be governed, and there is no way to govern a portion of them, at least, without the employment of force. And I consider that the most important thing to do to civilize Indians is to govern them. I presume that there is no person who will not admit that the Indians ought to be governed. By admitting this much, they of necessity concede that force must be used. The only question, then, is as to the manner of applying this force. The sooner it is done, the better it will be for the Indian people.

When I recommend the employment of force, it is not expected that we shall come to blows. All that is necessary is to have the force on hand; then explain to the Indians, kindly but firmly, what we intend to do, why we do it, and what we expect them to do; then go ahead and carry out our policy honestly and fairly, and if they then rebel against that policy they must feel the power of the Government. I have

no fears for the result of this proposed policy. I have great fears for the future of the Indians if the old and present manner of managing them and their affairs is continued. I believe that more can be accomplished for the good of the Indians in four years in the way I suggest than in twenty-five years under the reservation system as at present. In fact, I am convinced that the reservation system can never be completely successful.—Very respectfully,

JACQUES.

CROW INDIAN AGENCY,
MONTANA, March 7, 1884.

HEADS OF BUREAUX IN CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the recent discussions of the civil service and movements for its improvement, attention has been chiefly directed to the lower grades of the service, and particularly to the class designated as "clerks." But immediately above the clerks, and between them and the heads of the departments, is a class of subordinate officers, the assistant secretaries and the heads of bureaux, these latter known as commissioners, auditors, comptrollers, and by other names. These subordinate officers, except on a few of the most important questions of policy, and on some chance questions in which the head of a department may happen to feel a special interest, control generally the action of the department. It is not too much to say that the daily business conduct of the departments is in the hands of these officers. On the one hand, they largely direct the action of the head of the department; for this is quite generally based on the recommendations of these subordinates and on papers selected and digested by them. On the other hand, they are next in authority over the clerks; to them the clerical force is immediately responsible for the quality and quantity of daily work. If the heads of bureaux in a department are good executives, the clerical force of that department will be carefully disposed, so as to work efficiently and economically. Rules controlling both the diligence and the methods of the clerks will be laid down, and, because of the nearness of the bureau officers, these rules will be enforced. If these officers are enlightened upon the questions both of policy and of private right which come before them for decision, and are practical in their methods, the administration of the department will produce respect and general satisfaction among those who are in any way dependent on governmental action. The efficiency of these subordinate officers, in whose hands is the daily administration of affairs, is of far greater importance, under our system of government, than the efficiency of the heads of the departments.

The proper work of the head of a bureau is always difficult. It needs for its due performance diverse talents, of high order. The Commissioner of Pensions is charged with responsibility for the work of over fifteen hundred employees in his office; the Commissioner of the General Land Office and the Sixth Auditor of the Treasury, for over three hundred each. These are examples. The proper government of so large a number of subordinates is never an easy task. Its difficulty is increased when the responsibility for their work is in the hands of one officer, and their promotion or dismissal in the hands of another, who is subject in his action to influences not connected with the welfare of the service. The legal questions which fall within the jurisdiction of the head of a bureau are involved, requiring legal ability of a high order. The First and Second Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs in the Treasury Department are law officers, who have to

decide on the legality of all expenditures from the Treasury. Properly to construe the large body of statutory law before them, and to determine intricate questions of express and implied contract, so as to settle properly the boundaries of governmental and individual right, is a work of great magnitude. Questions of administrative policy—such, for instance, as require the decision of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs—are no less difficult. A good bureau officer needs to add to high legal talent executive ability of no usual order, and to make use of these with untiring industry.

That the bureau officers generally fail to reach the proper requirements of their positions, or, to put it stronger, that they are generally very inefficient, will not, I think, be denied by those who have had opportunity for an intimate acquaintance with the workings of the departments here. The deficiencies of the clerks, who are generally far better fitted for their work than the heads of the bureaux for theirs, would be in great part remedied by better superior officers. The chief of a bureau who is chief in anything but name is the exception rather than the rule. He very often does little more than sign papers prepared by his subordinates, follow their advice, and pursue a careful negative course that can give no one any reason for seeking his removal. The real authority in a bureau is very often divided among the heads of its various divisions, and the strange spectacle is presented of the policy of the bureau being liberal in regard to one part of its jurisdiction and narrow in another, according to the cast of mind of the clerks at the head of the several divisions. "Well, I will see what 'the boys' have to say to this," said the head of one bureau to me, in regard to a matter of official business. "The heads of division run our office," said a Treasury clerk to me. "What sort of a man is the head of your office?" I asked another clerk of twenty years' service. "That makes no difference," he answered, "as long as the present Deputy holds his place." A well-known Senator of the same party as the Administration said a few days ago: "These bureau officers know nothing except what they learn from their twelve and fourteen hundred dollar clerks."

The primary reason for inefficiency in these positions is that special fitness for these offices is not the basis of selection. The secondary reason is that the salaries are not large enough to attract men of sufficient ability. In the Treasury Department (the figures are from the last appropriation act) the Treasurer and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue receive \$6,000 a year; the Comptrollers, \$5,000; the Commissioner of Customs and the Register, \$4,000; the Auditors, \$3,600. In the Interior Department, the Commissioner of Pensions receives \$5,000; the Commissioners of Patents and of Railroads, \$4,500; and the Commissioners of the General Land Office and of Indian Affairs, \$4,000. The three Assistant Postmasters-General, really heads of bureaux in the Post-office Department, receive \$4,000 each. There can be but little doubt that a better class of men in these positions would easily save much more than the increase of their own salaries by a more economical use of their employees.

But no increase of salary will be of use until fitness for the position and not political service becomes the qualification for appointment. Under our present system, our chiefs of bureaux are, as a rule, either successful local politicians, like the First Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Frank Hatton, or defeated ex-Congressmen, like the Commissioner of Patents, Mr. Benjamin Butterworth. Occasionally an officer selected for political reasons happens to show himself well qualified for his place; it is a matter of chance.

The instances of bureau officers who have been promoted from clerkships are so few—and of these few the promotions have so largely been on political grounds—that it is not possible to say from actual trial what the effect of the general adoption of such a system would be. The recent promotion of Mr. Henry D. Lyman to the office of Second Assistant Postmaster-General, in whose bureau he had been chief clerk, and before that a subordinate, will give an opportunity for observation upon the effect of promotion from the ranks for conspicuous merit.

In some cases it is necessary for bureau officers to be in accord with the ruling policy of the party in power; generally they have nothing to do with this. The duties of a bureau officer, as a rule, are to carry out the law efficiently and economically. In the Treasury Department the six Auditors, the two Comptrollers, the Commissioner of Customs, the Register, the Director of the Mint, the Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, have nothing to do with party policy. Nearly the same is true of the three Assistant Postmasters-General, as well as the other heads of bureau in the Post-office Department. Even if a change of policy demands a change of subordinate executive officers, fitness for the place, among those of accordant policy, should be the sole test for selection.

This is the fundamental principle of true reform in the civil service; it is as applicable to the higher grades of the service as to the lower. When it is so applied we shall no longer find the heads of bureaux, as in so many cases we find them now, conspicuous for their inefficiency.

W. B. K.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 13, 1884.

CHARLES READE AND MME. REYBAUD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "The Portrait in My Uncle's Dining-room," published in *Littell's Living Age* for November, 1869, is a *literal* translation from the French tale, 'Mlle. de Malepeire,' by Mme. Charles Reybaud, published by Hachette & Co. in 1856; so well known that I am surprised your Michigan correspondent should have wasted so much ingenuity in order to discover its author in Lady Georgiana Fullerton. F. D. P.

BOSTON, March 14, 1884.

SHAKSPERE'S SOLFEGGIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your criticism of the 'Riverside Shakspeare' is none too severe. It almost deserves to be called the "swaggering edition," and I am glad that a part of the truth about it has been plainly spoken. On one point, however, I would suggest that your reviewer may be in error. He says that the notes sung by *Edmund*—fa, sol, la, mi—are F, G, A, E, instead of F, G, A, B, as stated by Mr. White. So I thought when I first read the note on that passage; but afterward it occurred to me that I had heard my father say that when he learned to sing—perhaps sixty or sixty-five years ago—the syllables taught were fa, sol, la, fa, sol, la, mi, fa, instead of do, re, mi, etc., as we now hear them. Possibly the same system prevailed in Stratford when Shakspeare used to attend the evening singing schools and go home with Ann Hathaway. E. E. L.

GREENFIELD, MASS., March 14, 1884.

PRAYER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 976 of the *Nation* one of your correspondents quotes from Bishop Warren: "We cannot understand God's plans enough to

know whether or not to pray for her recovery"—which is very suggestive.

It reminds me how, when I was a boy and had my Sunday-school teacher and my sled, I used in winter to pray for snow; and how awed I felt on one occasion when snow came in answer to my prayer, and I realized I was responsible for it. Even then I knew the poor do not enjoy snow. And, indeed, granting that by prayer we do obtain our wishes, how do we justify ourselves in changing the plans of God?

It also reminds me of what I once heard an Episcopal missionary, Bishop Penick, say. In speaking of his African experiences, he told us that on one occasion, while he was urging some savages to pray to God, the good all-giver, one of them asked why he should pray to God, who sought only to do him good, rather than to the devil, who was prowling round to destroy him. (These are my own words.) And I join with this poor savage in asking, Why? I know a clerk who in a late municipal contest expended all his blandishments on the opponent of his chief and friend. He reasoned thus: "If my chief is reflected he will keep me in my place, for he is just and a civil-service reformer; but if he is beaten his opponent will remove me unless he likes me, for he is a mere politician."

It is only in families where the parents are weak and silly that one finds the children teasing for this or that; children who trust in them do not seek to change their parents' decisions and plans. The whole spirit of modern dealing with the needy is not to help them, but to make them self-reliant. Beggars are the least respectable of all classes; begging is an insidious vice, and why is it worse to beg of man than to beg of God?

Is not the only prayer a trustful thinking soul can utter something like this: "Oh God, thou art good; thou carest for me; thy will be done?" D. S.

BALTIMORE, March 16, 1884.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & Co. will publish immediately a students' edition of their five-volume issue of Rawlinson's 'Monarchies of the Ancient Eastern World,' from the same plates but with smaller margins and less costly paper. They have begun delivering the parts of a new edition of Bryan's 'Dictionary of Painters and Engravers,' quite double in size that of 1849. This firm states that the enormous sale of a cheap edition of E. P. Roe's 'Barriers Burned Away' increased, instead of diminishing, the sale of the bound copies. They will accordingly repeat the venture with his 'Opening a Chestnut Barr.' They have also in press 'Carola,' a new novel by Hesba Stretton. Finally, they promise at once 'El Mandi and the Sudan,' by General Loring, formerly in the service of the Khedive.

'Euphorion,' studies of the antique and the mediæval in the Renaissance, by Vernon Lee, is among the spring announcements of T. Fisher Unwin, Paternoster Square, London.

W. R. Jenkins, 850 Sixth Avenue, has just published "Les Deux Écoliers," a one-act comedy by A. Laurent de Villeroy, of this city, who, himself a teacher, aims by it "à instruire sans fatiguer." For class-room use, every alternate page is blank and can receive the translation. Mr. Jenkins has nearly ready André Theuriot's 'Le Mariage de Gérard.'

Tuke's 'Influence of the Mind upon the Body' is not (partly in consequence of the author's style) a first-class work, but it has at the end of ten years reached a second London edition, and now a second American edition follows from the

press of Henry C. Lea's Sons (Philadelphia). A glance through it shows the extensive overhauling that it has received, and the freshness of much of its new material, as in the sections devoted to the hallucinations of Lourdes and Knock.

Mr. Spofford's invaluable 'American Almanac' for the current year (American News Co.) preserves its familiar scheme, with the necessary alterations to date, and with the customary minor variations—omissions and additions. Such new features as we have been able to discover are the names of the Civil Service Commission; the death-rate of our colored population in 1880, and their voting strength in the same year; library statistics; and suffrage qualifications, by States. The table of differences of time between New York and the chief cities of the Union is retained, but we miss an account of the new system of standard railroad time, which ought to become a standing feature of the Almanac. We will also repeat our wish that each new volume might contain an index to statistics given in preceding volumes exclusively. The public, we dare say, hardly appreciates the variety of the contents of this annual. Foreign countries as well as the United States are embraced in it.

The 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1884 (Macmillan) has been so far worked over by its new editor, Mr. J. Scott Keltie, as to enable him to assume entire responsibility for it. It calls, therefore, for somewhat more extended criticism than formerly; and this we hope to give it shortly.

M. Louis Figuier's 'L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle' (F. W. Christern) depicts fairly well, in a light and popular way, the major doings of man and nature during the past year. No less than ten expositions—the last, "of insects"—are recorded, but invention seems to have added hardly anything remarkable or promising to the achievements of other years. We may perhaps except the application of electricity to the guidance of balloons, as attempted by MM. Gaston and Albert Tissandier; but, otherwise, those who were celebrating in August the centenary of the brothers Montgolfier could deny that the aeronautic art had made much progress since 1783. The earthquakes and eruptions, including Ischia and Krakatoa, were distinguished above any known to history. M. Figuier fails to notice the connection, which we may consider demonstrated, between the Javan disturbance and the extraordinary sunsets of the past few months. His section devoted to cyclones in this country is altogether inadequate. The cholera in Egypt, the political results of which we are now witnessing, was the chief plague. Nordenfliöld's expedition to Greenland was the most interesting and the most famous, but perhaps not the most valuable of the year. The Brooklyn Bridge was the greatest mechanical triumph. M. Figuier imports some little humor into his annals by telling of India-rubber crying babies invented in this country for use by railway travellers who want to deter others from invading their "wagon." And he jocosely says, of the ease with which dyspeptics use Dr. Faucher's siphon for washing out the stomach, that this operation becomes for them merely "une question de toilette."

Charles Scribner's Sons have added 'Doctor Johns' to the uniform series of Donald G. Mitchell's works; and volumes ii. and iii. of Dean Stanley's 'History of the Jewish Church' to the uniform series of his works.

The well-devised juvenile library called "Classics for Children," published by Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston, has just been enlarged by a new volume, 'Stories of the Old World,' by the Rev. Alfred J. Church. The story of the Argo, of Thebes, of Troy, of the wanderings of

Ulysses and of Æneas, is told in each case with Mr. Church's accustomed felicity.

It is a pleasure to receive the 'Vicar of Wakefield' in the garb of the "Parchment Library" (D. Appleton & Co.). Mr. Austin Dobson has annotated the story in a manner both agreeable and helpful, with very little that could be spared as contributing nothing to the elucidation of obscure passages, or to our knowledge of Goldsmith's mind and career. We mentioned last year Mr. Ford's very plausible theory of the scene of the story. This admirer has gone further in the illustration of Goldsmith, and, having shared his discoveries with Mr. Dobson, we have them here brought side by side with the text. It is safe to say, therefore, that no edition of the 'Vicar' is now to be preferred to this one.

The Bookmart Publishing Co., Pittsburgh, Pa., have published in a little pamphlet of eight pages a list of the prices obtained at the recent sale of the late Henry C. Murphy's library. It is fitted to bind up with the original catalogue, and will no doubt be thought by many book-buyers to be well worth the dollar that is charged for it.

Mr. Cable's 'Madame Delphine,' translated by Mme. Th. Bentzon, has just been published in Paris by Calmann Lévy. Mme. Blanc has recently, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, devoted two articles to Mr. Cable, which will probably reappear in her forthcoming volume on the 'New American Novelists.' 'Madame Delphine' is also announced by Mr. Douglas, of Edinburgh.

With No. 19, *Swinton's Story-Teller* ceased publication. The task of filling a weekly paper with short stories only is well-nigh hopeless, even if the past be drawn upon. Even *Fiction* lasted longer than the *Story-Teller*.

From Henry Cook, 110 Tremont Street, Boston, we have received probably the sole authentic memorial of the interment of the late Wendell Phillips in the old Granary burying-ground in Boston. The scene was photographed under such conditions of light as make the picture obtained a remarkable success, while much interest attaches, not only to the little family group in the foreground, but to the great sweep of headstones and other monuments which mark the resting-place of some of Boston's most famous sons. The price of the print is fifty cents.

Every owner of Hugo's folio, 'Bewick's Woodcuts,' must have resented the unconcealed insertion of a great number of cuts which had no more relation to Bewick than to Albert Dürer or a prehistoric bone artist. Mr. W. J. Linton has been at pains, in the *Academy* of March 1, to analyze the entire lot of 2,009 cuts and pass judgment upon them. "Not a hint of Bewick," "Refuse again," "Nothing of any value," "May be by anybody," "By Bonner," "All by Green." are some of this expert's decisions, for which he certainly deserves thanks.

The *Antiquary* begins the new year with great promise; both the January and February numbers contain several papers of special interest. In the former, Mr. Henry B. Wheatley begins a series of articles upon "The History and Development of the House" (not continued in February). This instalment, besides an introduction, is devoted to the hall, and has four interesting illustrations from ancient sources (in English history). Mr. J. H. Round discusses the expression *illud detestabile bellum de Leves*, found in a letter of Simon de Montfort, and undertakes to explain how the victor could call the battle "detestable." This he does by comparing it with the term "this unnatural war," used by Fairfax in a letter to Prince Rupert. The letter from America in 1774 has already been noticed by us. Interesting articles on the study of coins (by Reginald Stuart Poole), Fotheringay Castle,

etc., we must pass over. The February number opens with an article by G. Laurence Gomme on the House of Lords. This, too, begins a series, and has for its object to establish Mr. Freeman's thesis that the Witenagemot, from which the House of Lords was derived, was itself the outgrowth of the popular assembly. Here we find taken for granted the view, generally given up now by the best German scholars, that the freeman had his political rights "by virtue of the lands he held in the common domain." A long article by Karl Blind on the "Hawick Slogan"—*Teribus ye Teri Odin*—brings a great mass of collateral learning to illustrate the question of the origin and meaning of this "ancient Germanic war-cry." He associates it with the old ceremony of the "Riding of the Marches." There is also an interesting article by Mr. Brownbill upon the early life of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex. The writer takes an unfavorable view of Cromwell's political principles, which appear to have been modelled on 'The Prince' of Machiavelli.

In the last number of the English *Journal of Philology* the Master of Trinity has given a specimen of his *adversaria* on the well-worn "Clouds." "The chief motive for publishing them," he says, "was the desire to remind English scholars of the important textual services rendered to Aristophanes by their own countrymen, especially by Bentley; services which are, perhaps, better appreciated by the Dutch and some German critics than by our own students." Dr. Thompson's great reputation as a Grecian will of course secure attention for anything that he publishes, though it is hard for one not under the glamour of his authority to see the least earthly use in some of the notes, except to show that "the greatest Hellenist in England" is a careless proof-reader, which may be a comfort to those whom he has not spared—"some Germans" included. In Professor Nettleship's Notes in Latin Lexicography, we have some of the material which that indefatigable scholar is collecting for his great Latin dictionary. Mr. Scott has an interesting article on the "Physical Constitution of the Epicurean Gods"; and Malden's "Alexander in Afghanistan" has especial interest in view of the recent history of the country.

Mr. Maxwell Hall, of Jamaica, remarking that our knowledge of the planet Neptune is mostly confined to three points—that it is the furthest planet from the sun, appears as a star of the eighth magnitude, and is attended by a satellite—began in November last some observations, which were continued during the following month, and which indicate that (1) the planet has a delicate bluish color, and (2) that its brightness is subject to periodical variations, probably due to the rotation of the planet on its axis in 7h. 55m. 12s. He points out the remarkable prismatic sequence of color of the planets, proceeding from the earth outward—Mars reddish, Jupiter a delicate orange, Saturn greenish yellow, Uranus light green, and Neptune slightly blue. The extent of the observed variation in the brightness of Neptune amounted to nearly one stellar magnitude.

Dr. William Huggins has continued his important experiments in photographing the solar corona, without eclipse, during the past year. Through the kindness of the Misses Lassell, he was provided with a more suitable form of apparatus, made up in part of a seven-foot Newtonian telescope, constructed by the late Mr. Lassell. About fifty photographs were taken between April 2 and September 4, all of which show "a more or less coronal appearance," and the English members of the Caroline Island eclipse party of last May consider that "Dr. Huggins's coronas are certainly genuine as far as S' [one-fourth the sun's diameter] from

the limb." A committee of the Royal Society has been appointed to arrange for taking photographs of the solar corona by Dr. Huggins's method, at some place of high elevation.

Two anonymous volumes, independent of but complementary to each other, bear the titles, 'Bismarck nach dem Kriege: ein Charakter- und Zeitbild,' and 'Bismarck: zwölf Jahre deutscher Politik (1871-1883).' The former was published last year and has gone through a second edition; the latter has just appeared in Germany. The author marks his identity by a sign of three asterisks on each title page, and in the preface to the earlier volume acknowledges connections, of something like an "inspired" character and of long standing, with the political leader of the German Empire, whose consistency in actions and policies often apparently incongruous he endeavors to vindicate. These works are very interesting to students of contemporaneous history, chiefly on account of their many extracts from speeches, documents, and leading articles, which are ably connected and commented upon. The contents of the earlier volume are: "Bismarck and Rome," "Bismarck and Social Democracy," "Bismarck and the Joint Stock Societies," "Bismarck and His Frictions," and "Bismarck and the [Parliamentary] Fractions"; and those of the new publication: "Bismarck, Gortchakoff, Andrassy," "Bismarck and the Central European League of Peace," "Bismarck in External and Internal Affairs," "Bismarck and the French Policy of *Réserve*," and "Bismarck, Ultramontanism, and the Cobden Club."

Mr. Leonard Scott writes to us from Greensboro', N. C., to say that he has had nothing to do with the management of the "Leonard Scott Publishing Company" for the last eighteen years, and since 1881 has not even been a stockholder or interested in any way in the conduct of its affairs.

—Neat and timely is the little hand book on 'Tree-Planting' from the pen of Mr. N. H. Eggleston, published by D. Appleton & Co. Excellent and convincing reasons are given in the first of the four short chapters why trees should be planted, and this is followed by suggestions about when to plant, what to plant, and how to plant. Mr. Eggleston's advice upon these points is generally sensible and safe, and should have the effect of making people more closely examine for themselves this important subject. His views upon the possibility of covering the treeless plains of the central plateau of the continent with a forest growth are perhaps, however, a little more hopeful than circumstances quite justify. The flourishing plantations in the extreme western portion of Nebraska and Kansas, to which he alludes in support of his theory, exist, we fear, only in the glowing imagination of local editors, or enterprising railroad managers with lands to dispose of. In reality, so far at least as has come within our somewhat extended observations, all the plantations of trees which have been made west of the region of rainfall sufficient to insure a natural growth of trees have proved entire failures. It is, therefore, unfortunate that Mr. Eggleston has found encouragement where encouragement does not exist, and that he has thus helped to keep up the delusion about the tree growing capacity of the territory west of the 100th meridian. As he is an officer of the Government, however, it is perhaps only natural that he should suppose that trees can be made to grow, rain or no rain, so long as the Government continues to give away land for the purpose of encouraging the planting of timber without any regard whatever to the climatic conditions of the region to be planted. As long as the present Timber-Culture Act remains in

force, people will be seduced into the folly of needless expenditure in vain attempts to make trees grow where, except by the aid of irrigation, no human power can force them to do so.

—The copyright question has been discussed of late in the journals, daily, weekly, and monthly, from almost every point of view. But there is one way of looking at it which we do not remember to have seen noticed. Before granting the foreign author compensation, some persons who like to go to the bottom of things may ask whether the native has any right to that which he at present enjoys. Literary composition, they would point out, is a great pleasure. If an author is good for anything he enjoys writing. In fact, after he reaches a certain age and a certain degree of facility, there is scarcely any pleasure so great as the easy flow of ideas and words when he is in the vein. Why should he be paid for his amusement? It may be urged that he is not always in the vein, and that at such times writing is work and deserves pay. But why work when he is not in the mood? The product will not be good then. If he is to be paid, he has no right to palm off such work on the public; if he is not to be paid, he has no reason so to do. He may say that he cannot afford the delights of literary composition considered as a pastime; he must earn his living. Very well; let him do so by an honest trade, and deny himself this pleasure as men continually have to deny themselves a great many pleasures which are beyond their means. The claim that he deserves compensation for the phosphorus he consumes in writing has a similar answer. Why should he be paid for this outgo any more than the chess or the whist or the billiard player, who all of them use up their brains quite as much as the writer? Nor would it be allowed to be any better argument that authorship, even in its lightest forms, demands a long preliminary preparation, and that the honorarium, as the English are pleased to call it, may be regarded as interest on invested capital. So do all sports in which the pleasure comes from the successful exercise of skill. Does not the *Saturday Review* tell us that on these rare occasions when the English ponds and rivers are frozen thick, the most hard-worked business men are seen with their skates on at sunrise, and, while they are at it, lose no time in idling or fooling about it, but grind away at their figures with all the serious earnestness of students who are solving an astronomical problem or composing an epic poem? Yet no one thinks of paying them when they arrive at such proficiency that they can hold their own even with the cracks of the Canadian and American rinks. We present these considerations, not as representing our own views, but as contributing to round out the discussion. The other side hardly needs any statement. Our readers have no doubt already had in their minds the distinction between amateurs and "professionals"—those who play, write, or do anything else for pleasure, and those who do it for pay; have been asking themselves whether it is not fair that they should pay "gate money" in literature as well as in base-ball playing; and perhaps further, why the English actor or the German singer who comes over here and amuses or delights us, should get a recompense, and the English author whose books come over here, should get none.

—A work so admirable in plan and complete in execution as Kürschner's 'Litteratur-Kalender,' of which the sixth annual issue lies before us, must be indispensable to the literary men of Germany and highly useful to those of other countries. A similar work for English authors would perhaps be even more useful to us than this is to the Germans, but we fear there will

never be sufficient *esprit de corps* among us to make possible such an undertaking. Mr. Kürschner's calendar is a 16mo of 488 pages, printed in the smallest, and therefore most unreadable, German type. Of the 488 pages, 303 are devoted to an alphabetical list of living German authors, each entry giving the name, principal works, date of birth, and—the most important thing—the post-office address. In the list are included professors and journalists, but, even with these, a foreigner is surprised to learn, great as is our respect for the intellectual activity of Germany, that the German literary profession numbers no fewer than 19,350 persons, of whom 18,142 have no other means of livelihood. Of the number first given, only 350 are women. To judge by some further statistics, the pecuniary reward is in inverse proportion to the number, since the 19,000 have families numbering 14,813 persons, but only 1,616 house-servants. The remaining pages are occupied with a necrology of 1883, lists of journals and publishers, the text of the French copyright treaty and a long legal opinion on copyright law, and reports, at considerable length, of various literary societies.

—That the advocates of a reform in German orthography are even more active than reformers of our own language is manifest from two publications on our table—*Reform*, the organ of the "Society for the Simplification of German Orthography," published monthly at Norden, (Prussia), and the annual 'Kalender des allgemeinen vereins für vereinfachte deutsche rechtschreibung,' published by the Bremen branch society. The calendar is the sixth of its series, and *Reform* is in its eighth volume, although it seems that the society has only with the present year begun to make its organ accessible to the general public. The January number at first glance seems not what it is—that is to say, the leading article, stating the aims of the new movement, retains the old orthography, while the "practical part" is a sort of compromise between the old and the new, and only the "theoretical portion" (a very small one) shows the new method in its true colors. Briefly stated, its leading features are: but one written alphabet—the Roman; abolishment of capital letters, except in proper nouns and at the beginning of a sentence; no doubling of consonants in one syllable, and no letters to denote lengthened sounds; single signs for *ch* and *sch*; suppression of the superfluous *c*, *y*, *ph*, *sz*, *rh*, *x*, *w*, and *q*; *F* assumes the functions of *v*, which takes the place of *w*. The old rule, "Write as you correctly speak," is supposed to be the basis of the new orthography, which certainly in most respects recommends itself to native as well as foreign students of the German language. However, should the new method ever come to be generally accepted, it will be because the rule, "Write as you correctly speak," has been supplemented by the counter rule, "Speak as you correctly write." For the question, What is the correct way of speaking? meets us on looking at the commonest words in their new dress. Is "unt" and not "und" really the proper pronunciation, "handlung" and not "handlung," "apsetzen" and not "absetzen"? (By the way, why *setzen* and not *setzen*?) Is no distinction to be made between "das" and "dass"? "Wechsel" for "Wechsel" may be generally welcomed, but will "hökster" for "höchster" be? And who is to be our guide in the pronunciation of proper nouns, especially those belonging to foreign nations and to the past? Is it really necessary to introduce to the world, as the calendar does, in the "transition" spelling, a modernized "Oliver Kromwel," a "Walter Skot," a "Moro"—the last all the stranger to the eye because Turenne and Béranger are preserved in their entirety? It

would seem as if native names offered difficulties enough to German reformers, judging from the contradictory "Wircho" and "Basedow."

—There can no longer be any doubt that our continent owes its name to the German schoolmaster at St. Dié, in Lorraine—Mr. Waldseemüller, or (in Greek) Hylacomylus, as he habitually called himself. We have been told repeatedly how his enthusiasm for Amerigo Vespucci's pretended discoveries was aroused by the young geographer Ringmann; we have heard how Waldseemüller, in his 'Cosmographie Introductio,' in the year 1507, spoke of a fourth continent, and added: "Why should we not call it the land of Amerigo or America, since it has been discovered by Amerigo?" and how Hylacomylus was thus the first who ever used the word "America." But not only is the inventor of the name of "America" a German, the word itself is radically German. "Amerigo" may be the Italian form of the German "Amalrich," which we find as the name of a famous king of the Goths, and again in the 'Nibelungenlied' (st. 1488, etc.), and elsewhere; and in this case there would exist a close relation between the name of America and the name of the Swiss village of Amriswil (Amelricheswilare). While this is very probable, we may say for certain that the Italian "Amerigo" was considered, in the earliest remnants of German literature, as the equivalent of the German "Heinrich," "Heimrich." One of the most celebrated bearers of this name was, for example, the Count of Narbonne, Amerigo II., who in the *chanson de geste Guillaume d'Orange* appears as Aymeri de Narbone. Wolfram von Eschenbach, one of the greatest poets of the German middle ages, bases his "Willehalm" on a part of the *chanson de geste* just mentioned, and says in the introduction to this poem:

"Diz maere ist wâr, doch wunderlîch,
Von Narbôn grâf Heinrich
Alle sine sune verstiez," etc.

—In view of this equivalence, "Amerigo=Aymeri=Heimrich," we might give the German form for America as "Heinricha" or "Heinzia," or, for people who like the still fashionable mixture of French and German, "Heorietta." Whether Amalrich or Heinrich be taken as the true equivalent of Amerigo, the latter is undoubtedly of German origin; and this fact cannot surprise any one who is acquainted with the history of the time when the German nation was the only great Power in the world, and when German proper names were used among all civilized nations. We might add that even in modern times the origin of the name of many a celebrated man outside of Germany is hardly disguised by its foreign dress—e. g., Garibaldi is the German Garbald (Spear-bald); Umberto is the German Hunbert (Hun-bright, i. e., Giant-bright); Leopardi is the German Leutwart (Folk-warrior); and one of those German scholars who bear the grass grow has lately found out that the great French statesman Adolphe Thiers was of German descent, and properly ought to have written his name Adolf Dieterle!

—Few books of exploration present, in shape, print, maps, illustrations, and especially in their list of contents, as attractive an appearance as Karl Eugen von Ujfalvy's latest book of travel, 'Aus dem westlichen Himalaja,' published by Brockhaus in Leipzig (1884). The principal regions traversed by Ujfalvy in this his third Asiatic journey, begun in the spring of 1881, are those of northwestern India, Cashmere, Dardistan, and Little Tibet; and his range of observation embraces, besides anthropology, ethnology, archaeology in the widest sense, and linguistics—his special branches of study—almost everything that engages the attention of a wide-awake traveller. In his second journey,

undertaken in 1880, he made an attempt to penetrate into the same regions from the north, through Russian Turkestan and across the Hindu Kush, but was prevented from achieving his object by unexpected obstacles. In his preface he remembers the late General Kaufmann, the then Russian Governor-General of Turkestan, with unmitigated contempt. Kaufmann probably treated Ujfalvy as a countryman of the Russophobic Vámbéry, although he travelled under the auspices of the French Government, being a French citizen, and, since 1871, a professor at the Lycée Henri IV. Ujfalvy is a Hungarian by descent and sentiment—and his name betrays him as such, especially when written out with its often misprinted complement "de Mezö-Kövesd"; but he was born in Vienna (in 1842), received a German education, and writes his works, which are equally numerous and important, not in Magyar but in French, or exceptionally in German, like the one before us. We followed the wording of the German title-page in giving his name above, but "Charles Eugène de" would perhaps be more appropriate than "Karl Eugen von." The Magyar equivalent—Károly Jenő, without the particle indicative of nobility, which the termination of the family name renders superfluous—would have, according to the rules of the language, to be placed after "Ujfalvy." The explorer writes in a pleasant German style, remarkable for conciseness, and his volume is, for a work combining scientific discourse and amusing description, far from bulky. Throughout these travels, which were not without arduous labor or danger, he was accompanied by his wife. They brought home quite a museum of ethnological and artistic curiosities, which is alluded to with a kind of naïve self-congratulation. In his way of talking of his achievements, Ujfalvy frequently reminds one of Vámbéry, whom he, more patriotically than correctly, calls his "great countryman."

—An audience that occupied every seat in the Academy of Music and much of the standing room, assembled on Thursday to hear a performance by the Oratorio Society of Bach's great Passion Music according to St. Matthew. This fact is worthy of special attention, as it shows that people are getting over their superstitious dread of Bach, who has long been looked upon as a sort of abstruse musical Hegel. It cannot be denied that Bach often does give his hearers polyphonic puzzles to unravel. For the enjoyment of his music the mind must be in an active, not a passive state. One cannot sit down and lazily indulge in it as one does in an Italian aria or a hot bath. It is more like swimming against a mountain stream, and the subsequent effect is equally exhilarating, as compared with the languid feeling that follows a hot bath. Those who do follow Bach in an attentive manner and understand all his subtle processes, cannot save themselves from the fate of becoming enthusiasts. The singers who are obliged to study his music all become affected in this way, and with the audiences it is only a question of time and repetition. When Beethoven, toward the end of his life, became acquainted with the exhumed vocal treasures of Bach he exclaimed, "Not Bach (brook), but Ocean should be his name"; so inexhaustible are his musical resources and so profound his originality. Bach has exerted an enormous influence on all modern composers—especially on Schumann, Franz, Saint-Saëns, and Wagner; and it is to a large extent the light reflected from their works that makes Bach more and more intelligible to us. It is to be hoped that the time is at hand when we shall have an annual performance in this city not

only of the St. Matthew's Passion, but of the sublime B minor Mass and others of Bach's works. Of the five Passions which he is supposed to have written, the one according to St. Matthew, which was given last week, is justly considered the best; but he one according to St. John is almost equal to it in beauty, and by no means deserves the neglect which is its lot even in North Germany. In these Passions it is not easy to say what deserves the most admiration—the majestic chorales, which were originally intended to be sung by the congregation; the expressive recitatives; the quaint and beautiful orchestral part; the chaste and simple solo melodies, or the highly dramatic and wonderfully constructed choruses. No composer has ever written more charming violin or oboe obligatos than those which were on Thursday assigned to two members of the orchestra, and the final chorus of the work is of an inspiring grandeur that has never since been equalled except in the third act of "Die Meistersinger." The performance was meritorious, considering the difficulty of the task. In accordance with a request on the programme, applause was abstained from, which added much to the dignity and impressiveness of the concert.

LEA'S SACERDOTAL CELIBACY.

Historical Sketch of Sacerdotal Celibacy in the Christian Church. By Henry C. Lea. 2d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

AFTER an interval of seventeen years the second edition of Mr. Lea's unique volume is offered to the public. It differs from the earlier one mainly in the addition of material in the chapters upon the Church of to-day, bringing the account down to its latest phase in the establishment of civil marriage and the attempt to rescue education from the hands of a celibate clergy.

The author has become well known to students of mediæval, and especially of ecclesiastical, history by his vigorous and scholarly investigation in these fields. His manner of working is to select some one narrow topic, and to pursue this through all the phases of its origin, development, and, perhaps, decline. This is a method which has great advantages, but also great dangers. It serves to hold more firmly before the mind of the author and, therefore, of the reader the one aspect of human life which is under consideration, whereas in more general works it becomes often impossible to bring out clearly such a story of development, and the reader is left in doubt and confusion on the very points he would especially like to be clear about. Monographic writing, if well done, forms the necessary complement to more general study. But, on the other hand, there is danger that the author's mind, becoming completely filled with the narrow subject he has chosen, may lose the power of seeing its wider relations and of rightly estimating its value as a factor in the history of its time.

The book before us illustrates often the advantages and rarely the dangers of the historical monograph. It is the result of a vast amount of patient labor, of endless reading in almost the whole range of Church history, directed to the single object of showing how the institution of priestly celibacy grew, culminated, and declined. It was, moreover, work in an almost unbroken field, for the unwieldy volumes of the brothers Theiner were, so far as we know, the only attempt of modern scholarship to deal with the subject. This mass of material Mr. Lea has not only read and noted, but digested; so that what might easily have degenerated into an unreadable jumble of scattered notes appears as a well-ordered whole, so carefully arranged in its divisions that one has little difficulty in holding

the thread of the narrative. Nor has he forgotten that the institution he is describing does not stand alone, but is only one manifestation of a grandly conceived and powerfully executed plan to build up throughout the Christian world a government of a priesthood which should claim for itself the unquestioning allegiance of mankind. The Roman argument that what is, always has been (only, perhaps, in some modified form), is sufficient to prop up its most absurd pretensions in the minds of a vast majority among the persons it addresses. It can be met only as Luther met it, by showing from the plain evidence of history that the argument is a mere assumption, and false at that. History has been telling more and more plainly now these many years that all institutions are but growths, developing and ripening as the times need; and further, that only in so far as institutions rest upon this demand can they hope for permanence and vigor. If any proof were wanting as to the value of this historic method, the mass of lies cast into the form of history and circulated by the Roman Church as its best defence, would abundantly supply it. Herein consists the great value of Mr. Lea's work. It moves on in a line of evidence so closely twisted, it draws so plainly the distinction between temporary usefulness and divine inspiration, that any who will may follow the claims to the essential character of priestly celibacy, and see how wide is the distance from the fact to the dogma.

Celibacy originated in the Christian Church as it has originated in many another church, from purely natural and easily discernible causes. Though many of the aspects of early Christian monachism remind one of the older systems of the East, we doubt whether Mr. Lea has not gone too far in supposing a direct connection between them. Is it not enough to think, in the absence of direct evidence, that the earliest forms of Christian asceticism arose from a simple and natural desire after the higher life, and the mistaken fancy that all physical life, not to say all physical indulgence, was a thing lower and therefore less worthy than the life of the spirit? The step from this notion to that of the incompatibility of the two was a natural and easy one. The less of the physical or temporal, the more of the spiritual or eternal. Once started, this idea could hardly fail to grow vigorously in the favoring soil of the Eastern Church. The expressions of opinion in favor of celibacy, if the person were inclined to it and capable of maintaining it, are almost as old as the Church itself. But it is long before anything like a prohibition of marriage among clergymen can be found. Even when these appear, they touch first upon second marriages, and only later come to the real issue. The conspicuous silence of the Council of Nicea, well established by Mr. Lea in a vigorous chapter, proves the slight importance of the doctrine at that day. Not until late in the fourth century do we find regular and general decrees against priestly marriage. But even then it is clear that such decrees were not supported by the general feeling of Christendom. One cannot but be impressed with the revolt of sound human nature against this unnatural attempt. In spite of repeated decrees, the priest remained a man.

A powerful impulse was given to the cause of celibacy by the establishment in the sixth century of the Benedictine order. The rapid growth of monasticism in the West brought out a new rivalry between regular and secular clergy. In self defence the latter were compelled to emulate the ascetic rigor of the former. However the priests themselves might resist, it was clear that the common people were generally deeply impressed by the superior sanctity of the monk. The priest, then, must show him-

self capable of the same restraint to be worthy of the same allegiance.

But soon priest and monk alike began to prove the inherent falseness of the principle they affected to maintain. Corruption crept into the monasteries, and made necessary reform after reform. Indeed, the establishment of new orders had hardly any other meaning than this, that the old orders had departed from their purity and needed to be re-inforced by more vigorous blood. So it was with the priesthood. Popes, synods, temporal sovereigns, combined in vain in a great effort at reform. What had been but a violation of discipline was branded as heresy, and, with a singular reversion to what had been itself, ever since the Donatist revolt, regarded as heretical, the Church declared the married priest incapable of conveying to the layman the mystic benefit of the sacraments. The priest who kept a harem of concubines was simply guilty of a venial sin, which did not vitiate his act as priest; it was the act of marriage, with its more deliberate declaration of principle, which the Church could not tolerate.

The reasons for this attitude of the Church are thoroughly grasped and well described by Mr. Lea. It was not merely the critical sentiment as to the purity of the priest that urged Hildebrand to action. He saw, with his keen statesman's eye, the whole breadth of the danger which threatened if benefices were to become the property of priests and to be transferred by inheritance to their sons. If benefices were first to be bought, and then used as a means of equipping sons or portioning daughters—as was in fact often done—then there was an end to the whole conception of the Church as made up of men who owed their place and their power solely to their sacramental consecration. It was this clear conception of the evil which gave its force to the assault of Gregory VII., and his work forms naturally the culminating point of Mr. Lea's recital.

The greatest difficulty in getting at the truth on the whole subject is in the fact that almost all the material is buried in the writings of orthodox churchmen. The individuals and sects opposed to the institution of celibacy have left so little written evidence that they have hardly a word to answer to the charges of immorality and of heresy heaped upon them by their notorious enemies. But for this very reason such scraps of evidence as can be gathered from the voluminous literature of persecution have a value doubly great. Such a word as that of Damiani, for instance, that the Lombard clergy, excepting for their damning sin of marriage, were as angels of light in a corrupt age may well outweigh volumes of anathema. And the same might be said of the ghastly calendar of unspeakable monastic crimes which Damiani presented to Pope Leo IX. as a spur to his reforming energy, without the shadow of an idea that these evils were a part of the monastic system, and not merely a laxity which stricter discipline might remove. Such bits of unconscious testimony as these reveal a state of mind so utterly different from our own, a conception of right and wrong so confused and so inadequate, that one must feel a positive debt of gratitude to the author who has been able to bring some light and order out of this chaos of religious, political, and social ideas.

From the time of Hildebrand it is not too much to say that no change takes place in the question of celibacy. More and more the conviction grew that it was essential to the true life of the Church, but, almost in proportion to the theoretical abandonment of marriage, other forms of sexual indulgence came to be regarded as the privilege of the priest, until, in the hideous comedy of a Borgian papacy, every veil of de-

cency was cast aside. Perhaps in no respect does the Catholic Church owe a larger debt to the Protestant Reformation than in this. Placed upon its defence, it has been forced to a standard of morality higher than its own. In just the proportion that the Roman Church is subject to this pressure from without, it can maintain its artificial standard of virtue. Just so far as it becomes dominant, it will find this standard ineffectual to save it from the depths of degrading vice.

SEELEY'S WALPOLE.

Horace Walpole and His World. Select Passages from His Letters. Edited by L. B. Seeley, M.A. With eight illustrations after Sir Joshua Reynolds and Sir Thomas Lawrence. Scribner & Welford. 1884.

WHETHER Horace Walpole had in fact the soul of a gentleman-usher, as Macaulay sneeringly wrote, and as he himself lightly suggested might have been the case in his state of preëxistence, he certainly fills the office of one to posterity. He was the principal chronicler of fashionable society in the latter half of his century, and he introduces his lords and ladies with a suavity unusual in English diarists, and with an air and an enjoyment quite professional. The company itself was very agreeable. True, it was not literature alone that had so declined in those days as to justify a cold regard such as he expressed for it—"Don't tell me I am grown old and peevish and supercilious—name the geniuses of 1774, and I submit." Society, too, had degenerated. That century was the flustering time of the aristocracy; but, when Walpole wrote his multitudinous letters, the prime had passed. In the earlier hour, in Peterborough and Ormond, Bolingbroke, Pulteney, and Carteret, there had been a nobler manner and a finer intelligence. The world of Horace Walpole was bent only on enjoying itself mostly in the frivolous way that was the habit of the more decent portion of society to which his attention is confined; Fox's habits are mentioned only to be deplored, Queensbury is just heard of, Grafton is not named. Here are misses who dance, dowagers who play loo, and gentlemen—but really next to none of that sex can be found in Walpole's work as set forth by the present editor. The set he moved in, it would seem, was distinctly feminine, notwithstanding the fact that he had a poet and an antiquary, as well as men of affairs and fashion, among his correspondents. Indeed, Walpole's intellects could not be compressed within the narrow interests of his social clique—he was a larger man than most of those he knew; and Mr. Seeley, in confining his extracts from the vast correspondence almost exclusively to the topics of high life, and then labelling a confraternity of old women and young girls "Horace Walpole's world," has made a grave error in the perspective of his hero's life. The indefatigable scribbler, who was besides a voluminous author, not only meant to intrust his fame to this body of letters as his chief hope of immortality, but also took pains to select his correspondents, like characters for a play, with a regard to their grouping and function. Sir Horace Mann was his politician, Mason his littérateur, etc. In Mr. Seeley's volume, unfortunately, the letters are mostly of the sort their author called newspapers of London gossip, and all others are subordinated. The consequence is that he really wears somewhat more closely than he deserves the character of the gentleman-usher with which he has been reproached.

Horace Walpole was, however, preëminently a man of society. He had been well taken care of, at the public expense, by his father, before Sir Robert went out of office, and was there-

fore (being, moreover, a bachelor) always free from pecuniary trouble, and eventually became wealthy. He was unable to hunt, unwilling to gamble, uninitiated to getting drunk, and consequently had spirits for some intellectual pursuits and leisure to follow them. He built his castle at Strawberry Hill, and, being one of the most restless virtuosos of his age, filled it with curiosities and made it one of the wonders of England—a shrine for holiday visitors, native and foreign. He was distinguished, too, by many characteristic tastes of the ruling mode. He liked a broad landscape, spotted with gardens and arbors, with stretches of lawn and river, diversified by moving objects. "A park wall," he writes, "with ivy on it and fern near it, and a back parlor in London in summer, with a dead creeper and a couple of sooty sparrows, are my strongest ideas of melancholy solitude." He was sufficiently sensible, however, to protest against the absurdity of attempting the pastoral life, by way of amusement, even in the greenest of the Thames's meadows—the Elysian fields at Stowe:

"I could not help laughing as I surveyed our troop, which, instead of tripping lightly to such an Arcadian entertainment, were hobbling down by the balustrades, wrapped up in cloaks and greatcoats, for fear of catching cold. The Earl, you know, is bent double—the Countess very lame; I am a miserable walker, and the Princess, though as strong as a Brun-wick lion, makes no figure in going down fifty stone stairs. Except Lady Anne, and by courtesy Lady Mary, we were none of us young enough for a pastoral. We supped in the grotto, which is as proper to this climate as a sea-coal fire would be in the dog-days at Tivoli."

This gives one a sympathetic shiver, remembering modern attempts at the *al fresco* in our own country-seats; but the law and gospel of our climate is promulgated elsewhere, in a passage that affords a vivid outlook on the gradual change which was then already beginning to convert the old England into the seemingly endless park and garden it has in many districts now become:

"Our poets learnt their trade of the Romans, and so adopted the terms of their masters. They talk of shady groves, purling streams, and cooling breezes, and we get sore throats and agues with attempting to realize their visions. Master Damon writes a song and invites Miss Chloe to enjoy the cool of the evening, and never a bit have we of any such thing as a cool evening. Zephyr is a northeast wind, that makes Damon button up his chin, and pinches Chloe's nose till it is red and blue; and then they cry, *This is a bad summer!* as if we ever had any other. The best sun we have is made of Newcastle coal, and I am determined never to reckon upon any other. We run ourselves with inviting over foreign trees, and making our houses clamber up hills to look at prospects. How our ancestors would laugh at us, who knew there was no being comfortable unless you had a high hill before your nose, and a thick, warm wood at your back. Taste is too freezing a commodity for us, and, depend upon it, will go out of fashion again."

The grottos, and gardens, and pastorals have indeed gone out of fashion with the poets to whom they furnished their stock of nature; but the pretty prospects and the cultivated plots, which then only bordered a few miles of the Thames, have now spread over the island, and are a sign that the England of Walpole has well-nigh passed away. Change has not been confined to the face of the English landscape. Accustomed as we are to think that there is an extraordinary gulf between the French republic and the *ancienne noblesse*, modern England is nevertheless really quite as remote from the aristocracy of which this gentleman of mingled town taste and home bred sense was once a dilettante. Then, as he relates, the mob would follow the beautiful Gunning sisters in crowds, and pleased itself with making the quality stop their coaches and unmask on the way to the great subscrip-

tion ball which the House of Commons had adjourned to attend. Occasionally a Lord George Gordon riot might alarm the capital, but, like the shock of the earthquake he ridiculed, it would only wake the nobility to make falling to sleep again more comfortable. Robbery on the highway was very common even under the windows of the palace, and the ladies who ventured out to see one another after dusk went well enough armed, in his phrase, to capture Gibraltar.

These things are commonly known as history, but in Walpole's pages they are still acting, and have the character of adventure. Within his own day there were some changes that seemed to him great, but political rather than social, unless among the latter be reckoned the gradual postponement of the dinner hour from 5 o'clock, and the encroachment of the evening on the morning, which prompts him to say he "has outlived daylight." He saw, for example, the rebel lords of '45 beheaded, and made a fine letter out of the scene, and he lived until after the widow of the Pretender was presented to the Hanoverian Queen at court. If the angels have any sense of humor, he remarks, men must make them excellent sport. They—the changeable mortals—do not play fewer tricks before high heaven in the present time; but there have been so many reforms in the last hundred years that Horace might now be greatly shocked at the revolution of which he felt the premonitions. His occupation as news monger for the ladies and historiographer for generations unborn, would be gone, as well as the profitable sinecures that rained money into his purse. There would be no more frolics of bold young ladies and rakish youth at Ranelagh, no highwaymen, no Madame du Deffand, and (we greatly fear, at the present price of bric-à-brac) no curiosity shop at Strawberry Hill. The nobler qualities of Walpole's character, consequently (for we always instinctively judge our grandfathers by our own ideals), need to be insisted on if he is to have any respect. One must momentarily forget that he was a reporter of small affairs, a collector of rarities, a Platonic friend of old *mesdames*, and adoptive uncle of pretty girls, and especially that financially and politically he was an intolerable and crying abuse. Then it can be remembered that he helped to revive the taste for Gothic architecture, inaugurated a new (though bad) school of fiction, was the friend of America throughout her troubles, and denounced the slave-trade before Wilberforce was born. His life, fussy as much of it was, had a window or two open on the future; and though he tittle-tattled a good deal, and in particular was liable to that unfortunate misconception which a very virtuous gallant with a very white face is always subject to, though, in fact, he was exposed to contempt, and did much in an old-womanish way to deserve it, he certainly wrote very entertaining letters.

These letters have always ranked high since Byron and Scott said they were classic. They are excellently written, and when the subject is good they are delightful, being vivid, amiable, quick, seasoned with allusion, point, and anecdote. But whether they will keep their rank may be questioned. This selection does not do them justice: the editor has given a picture of the times, not characteristic letters of Walpole for their own sake. Those times were very entertaining to Scott and Byron, who lived near them and were aristocrats by taste; but to the world they are the least interesting of English history, and Walpole's associates played but little parts on the stage. "The world he lived in," as the editor calls it, will assuredly grow less attractive. Even now Selwyn and Queensbury are nearly as dead as Sed-

ley and Rochester of a hundred years before; and can the beautiful baby faces in these portraits outlive the finished gallant and the notorious debauchee? Why, Walpole's "world" was commonplace in its own day. The defect in these letters, as classical compositions, is their lack of freshness. They are a chronicle of faded things—finery, ambitions, sentiments, gossip, criticisms, beaux, dames, and nephews, all musty, and dry, and rubbishy. They do not reveal a nature like Cowper's, nor treasure up refinement, sense, and scholarly associations like Gray's. Invaluable to the historian, and to lovers of old French memoirs, they are not classic in the sense that Cowper's and Gray's letters are—in the sense of being invaluable to the highly-cultivated man. So far as the society they picture is concerned, the candles were burnt out and the play was done long ago. They are the quintessential spirit of worldliness—the form and feature of the world of which it was anciently said the fashion of it passeth away. They belong to the antiquary; they no longer touch life.

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Cicero de Officiis. Translated, with an Introduction and Notes, by Andrew P. Peabody. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

The Annals of Tacitus. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Henry Furneaux, M.A. Vol. I. Books I.-VI. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1884.

WE have on our table a collection of text-books for Latin, from American and English editors, which have been accumulating for some time, and can in most cases receive but cursory notice. Mr. Raven's is a neat little book, and will furnish useful material to teachers for questions in practical drill; but the words "Latin Grammar" must be construed much more widely than is customary in American schools. A large number of the questions are in translation from English into Latin and vice versa, or on the calendar, coinage, etc., in those parts of a grammar which boys read when they do not feel like getting lessons in it. Messrs. Freeman and Sloman's *Trinummus* gives this favorite play of Plautus in an excellent form for college use. It is of course based on Ritschl and Brix, as every new edition of Plautus for some time will have to be. There are copious stage directions, founded on the experience of the actual presentation of the play at Westminster School, a performance which, we can testify from personal experience, will light up the "Trinummus" wonderfully even for those who read it under the Pope Professor at Harvard College.

Professor Greenough's edition of the last six books of the *Æneid* and of the *Georgics* of Virgil has the fault that all second volumes and last

parts of school editions have: the notes are far too meagre. These poems are among the very hardest Latin there is, although the old absurdity of reading the *Georgics* in preparation for college, instead of putting them in the sophomore or junior year, still rules in some of our institutions. It is to us inconceivable that Mr. Greenough should take a pupil through Turpin's defiance in the ninth book, or Evander's or Diomedes's speeches in the eleventh, without ten times as much explanation as he here puts into his notes. The fact is, a large part of his notes to these books, as well as to the other portion, seem rather the points that have struck him as interesting in his private study than those needed to help a class.

The plan of Mr. Comstock's "First Latin Book" is avowedly different from that of most primary manuals. He considers them too meagre, and believes that on beginning a language there should be accessible a full explanation of all difficulties likely to arise. His book is thus composed of an introductory treatise on general or English grammar, a very full Latin accent and syntax, and abundant exercises in writing and translation founded on the first book of *Cæsar*, with notes and a vocabulary. In our opinion its elaborateness makes it likely to be a perplexing book for beginners; and it is further complicated by references to several of the grammars most in use in our classical schools. This, though a common practice, we cannot help thinking a mistaken one; a book for beginners should be capable of the fullest use, without reference to any other manual, however popular.

Messrs. Church and Brodribb are well known as editors and translators of Tacitus. They give us here the first half of *Livy's* third decade in English, with notes and excursions on the relations of Rome and Carthage, *Livy's* Hannibal's character, his passage of the Alps, and Syracuse. This translation is much more likely to be used as a labor-saving machine by those to whom the labor is useful, than to give an idea of the author to those who make no pretence at Latin. For both it seems to us to have the same disadvantages—mainly a want of simplicity. There is an affectation of raciness in the vocabulary which is very unlike *Livy*, and at the same time his periodic and interlocked sentences might be broken up far more than they are, and the antithesis in many cases better indicated. The whole work seems to be that of bookmakers.

Dr. Peabody's translation of *Cicero de Officiis* is distinctly a labor of love. He may truly say of it what Cicero said of all books: "*Hæc studia nobiscum peregrinantur*." Truly has been his travelling companion for years. Cicero is, beyond doubt, the most modern of the ancients, and his work on Duties is the best summary of the ancient morality in theory, just before its utter dissolution in practice. At a time when summer philosophers are talking about ancient thought decidedly beyond knowledge, Dr. Peabody comes forward to present this standard and most readable treatise in English—English for the general reader, neither the schoolboy nor the scholar. His preface, on ancient ethical theories in general, is very sound; and he concludes it, in explanation of his own principles of translation, with a very shrewd remark on the use of particles in Latin and Greek. Written as these languages were in letters of one size, without division of words, and very few stops, he shows that the particles are frequently recurring catchwords, meant for the eye, and only a disfigurement in English translation.

Mr. Furneaux's *Tacitus* is a truly magnificent book, and the examination that we have been able to give it indicates that it is as thorough as it is handsome. The first six books of *Tacitus's*

'Annals,' derived from a single very corrupt and broken MS., are second to no Latin classic in interest for the most casual reader, and in perplexing problems for the scholar. The editor begins by an introduction divided into nine chapters, five relating to the genuineness of the work, and the style and temper of the author, and four to the constitution of the early Empire and the condition of the Imperial household. A large part of these essays are of course merely compilation of what has been before noted, but they exhibit great judgment in collecting and arranging, and an entire independence of thought in their massing, instead of that weak worship of the "last German" so common in Western editions. But those essays in which erudition is a secondary, and judgment a primary matter, show that Mr. Furneaux has really taken hold of the Tacitean problems and thought out his own solution, in a way very unusual with recent editors. We commend Essays VII., "On the general administration of the Roman world," and VIII., "On the character of Tiberius," as illustrating his skill in grouping facts and drawing inferences. The notes which follow are in the main exegetical. The introductory essays, especially that on style, are liberally referred to, and no point of interest is neglected. Unlike most English editors, Mr. Furneaux makes but sparing use of translation to explain hard points, and is much more liberal of analytical sentences; nor does he, as far as we have been able to see, deal in that affected scouring of the English language in all its ages to express the Latin by some very precise equivalents, which no writer would ever use now. The whole volume appears to us scholarly, practical, and dignified—worthy of Oxford and of Tacitus.

Unser Reichskanzler: Studien zu einem Charakterbilde. Von Moritz Busch. Leipzig: F. W. Grunow; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 2 vols., 454, 438. 1884.

DR. BUSCH'S new book on Bismarck will hardly rival his former one in popularity. Its aim is professedly to furnish the materials for a complete portrait of the German Chancellor, but instead of furnishing anything new it only collects what was already easily accessible in print. Each of its twelve chapters is devoted to throwing light upon some particular phase of Bismarck's career and character: thus, one treats of his religious views, another of his treatment of the French, another of his attitude towards Austria; one regards him as an orator and humorist, another in his family relations, and so on. The method pursued is to give extracts from his speeches and letters, interspersed with comments, disquisitions, and explanations, without omitting copious passages from the author's previous book. Indeed, so far is Dr. Busch from hesitating to repeat himself that in this work he prints many things twice, some of which he had himself published before. To give but a single instance, on page 271 of the first volume and on page 99 of the second volume the reader finds the same identical story of how Bismarck threatened Thiers with a restoration of Napoleon III. if the demands of Germany were not complied with. When it is added that there are other superfluities (such as disquisitions on diplomatic abuses and on the communistic agitation) which have no bearing on the subject, it ceases to surprise us that what purports to be a mere "sketch" should assume the appalling proportions of nearly a thousand pages, destitute of an index.

Nevertheless, although lacking the charm of novelty to which the book on 'Bismarck and His People' owed so much of its great success, and

although Bismarck has laid himself open to much criticism during the past five or six years, and has diminished the number of his ardent admirers, the present work is by no means devoid of interest. It is an adroit vindication of Bismarck's course and integrity from every aspersion. The extracts from his public utterances are skilfully collated so as to demonstrate his unfailing patriotism and sagacity, and his superiority at all times to his political opponents. The latter are taunted, more than once, with intimations of what would have happened to Germany if, at various critical periods during the past thirty years, their views had prevailed, as contrasted with the actual results of Bismarck's policy. It is, after all, in these results that the statesman will find his real vindication, and by its results also must his more recent policy be ultimately judged.

Distant observers who are disposed to do full justice to his great achievements, but who consider his economic and socialistic legislation a blunder, may find a solution of the enigma in Matthew Arnold's dictum concerning the qualities and the defects of an aristocracy. Bismarck is by birth, by education, by character, and by conviction an aristocrat. Before being a German he is a Prussian, and as a Prussian he is a faithful servitor of the house of Hohenzollern. A united Germany under the hegemony of Prussia, a monarchy in which the King not only reigns but also governs—these are the ideals which he has kept steadily in view and has realized. For parliamentary government he entertains a supreme contempt. While he admits that in England, where it has gradually grown with the growth of the nation and has been favored by the insular situation, it works reasonably well, he believes that on the European Continent it is bound to lead to republicanism, which to him is synonymous with anarchy. In home matters he plants himself squarely on the Prussian Constitution, which guarantees coördinate powers to the three branches of the Government as far as legislation is concerned, but concentrates the executive power in the hands of the King. That a court of law should be allowed to decide a question of constitutionality is to him a horrible absurdity. Government by parties he pronounces an impossibility in Germany because each party always tends to develop in the direction of its extremest wings. For himself, he says, he belongs to no party. His only guide is the public good—*salus publica*. Whatever party will coöperate with him for the welfare of the country he welcomes as a help, and when their roads diverge he seeks a new alliance. In 1873, when a more stringent press law was opposed by Lasker as being an invasion of the rights of the people, Bismarck replied: "We are all of us representatives of the people. I belong to the people, we all belong to the people, as well as the gentlemen who call themselves Liberals. I deny that there is any antagonism between the people and the Government." He is a firm believer in discipline, even in matters of diplomacy. The foreign ambassadors, he says, must file right or left, at the word of command, as if they were sergeants.

Although containing little or nothing that is absolutely new, the present work states a few things which are not generally known. One is that what actually led Bismarck to join in the *Kulturkampf* against the Vatican was not the Italian but the Polish question. The Roman Church brought the conflict on itself by the zeal with which it labored to foster the Polish elements and repress the Germans in Silesia, and the Government was compelled to resort to energetic measures to counteract this injurious tendency. Again, we are told that in 1878 Marshal

MacMahon was extremely desirous that Germany should be represented at the Paris Exposition, and although the Empress was in favor of the proposal, Bismarck succeeded in having it rejected. His reasons were that the German exhibitors would be exposed to all manner of dangers and insults, which might ultimately lead to international complications and disturbances. There is, further, a long and interesting extract from a speech in which Bismarck gave an account of his intercourse with Lassalle, whom he calls one of the most amiable and intelligent men he ever met. "Lassalle was an energetic and highly intellectual man, with whom it was very instructive to converse. Our interviews lasted for hours, and I always viewed their termination with regret."

The extracts from the Chancellor's speeches evidence a familiarity not only with German and French, but also with English literature, even in its minor productions, and, although the world has never regarded him as an orator, his utterances have a vigorous homely air of common-sense more effective than the most labored rhetoric. The closing chapter gives an interesting account of Bismarck's powers as an athlete, of his proficiency in all manly exercises, of his good fortune as a hunter and sportsman, of his fondness for a country life, and of his success in farming his estates. If we are to believe the author, a simple idyllic existence, such as Pope depicts, is more to the taste of the Prince than an active political career; but even the most docile reader will refuse to honor so huge a draft on his credulity.

Italian Masters in German Galleries: a Critical Essay on the Italian Pictures in the Galleries of Munich, Dresden, Berlin. By Giovanni Morelli, Member of the Italian Senate. Translated from the German by Mrs. Louise M. Richter. London: George Bell & Sons.

ART criticism divides itself broadly into two branches—archæologic and æsthetic. The latter is an affair of sympathy with the artist's faculty of comprehending his purpose and of measuring his success in attaining it, and demands for its outfit a certain knowledge of the facts of nature and the laws of art, with a sufficient practical acquaintance with methods and processes to enable the critic to follow the artist through his work, and to judge of his success and the difficulties overcome in reaching it. The former is a matter of science, but science followed with a fine discrimination in the facts which form the foundation of it. This does not involve the capacity to pronounce judgment on the relative merits of an artist, or of works of art; it deals only with authenticity, with historical and chronological relations, and the lines of development of art and the schools of art. The capacity of the critic in one of these branches does not in the least imply his equal ability in the other. On the contrary, it can rarely happen that the man endowed with the scientific temper necessary for success in the archæology of art, and for patient collation of the requisite data, and with the impartial estimation of all painters and all schools which he must possess, will also have that degree of sympathy with the art of his time, and above all with new and yet unplaced art, which makes his criticism of it of distinct value. The union of high eminence in both branches is as unlikely as the analogous union in the same person of great scientific attainments and poetical excellence. There is no impossibility in the æsthetic critic acquiring the knowledge embraced in the archæology of art; but it is exceedingly improbable that the temper which fits him for one function would permit him to prepare himself for the other. At

all events, there is, so far as we know, no case on record of distinguished eminence of the same person in both branches, nor is there the least utility in such a combination. The æsthetic critic has to deal with new matter, and the ability to place it properly and with absolute justice depends on his freedom from prepossession and prejudice. He must measure Michael Angelo as if an unknown man, or how can he detect the yet unknown Michael Angelo? The passionate reverence of the hierarchy of art which makes its study a labor or love, is inconsistent with the free-thinking and radical temper of the critic, who must, if possible, ignore the weight of all tradition and the pressure of all authority, maintain the right of individual judgment, and measure Millet and Michael Angelo by the same standard. Even if the two so diverse qualifications should be united in one individual, there would not appear to be any gain—the law of specialties, indeed, indicating the advantage of their separation.

It is thus easy to understand why the Germans, so profound in their science and so patient and exhaustive in research, are so utterly inadequate in æsthetic criticism, narrow in judgment, bound up in conventionalities, and provincial, in what pertains to contemporary art; while the fact that an Italian critic, Senator Morelli, has been able to attack them successfully on their own ground, may possibly be, in part at least, due to his thorough acquaintance with and employment of German methods and research. His book—written in German, that those whom he virtually attacks might lose none of the force of his distinctions—is a model of archaeological criticism; and although, unfortunately, limited to examination of the great German galleries, will leave an ardent hope in the mind of the reader that he may one day pass the great English, French, and Italian galleries through the same ordeal. The book is so compact and terse in its reasoning and collation of data, so exhaustive in its investigation of the material obtainable, that we admit without hesitation the claim of the author to have examined every picture accessible; and the minuteness and excellent method of his investigation, shown on every page of the book, carry conviction with them. His sarcastic deference to those arch-bunglers, Crowe and Cavalcaselle; his easy upsetting of Passavant; the lightness of the touch with which he overthrows Dr. Marggraff, are delightful. It is impossible to quote, but as an example of the best vein of archaeological criticism we may take the investigation by which, if we are not too easily convinced, he develops the astounding fact that Raphael was really the pupil, not of Perugino but of Timoteo Viti, commonly believed to be his pupil, and only to have come into the studio of Perugino as an assistant about 1500.

The complete demonstration is too long to be quoted and too terse to be much abbreviated, but it shows that Perugino was not in Perugia for any considerable time between 1493 and 1500, while Raphael is said to have entered his studio in 1495; *per contra*, that Raphael had a warm friendship for Timoteo, a pupil of Francia, fifteen years the senior of the Urbinate, and already a prominent and delightful painter when Raphael began his studies; and that, as far as the indirect testimony of pictures and documents can go, it is the most probable conclusion that Raphael was a pupil of Timoteo until about 1500, when Perugino came to the comparatively steady occupation of his studio in Perugia. This demonstration is followed out with such logical concatenation of evidence, dates, and data, the result of an exhaustive investigation in every direction, that a new examination of all the material, the discovery of new information,

or the demonstration of the falsification of Signor Morelli's data, alone can save Perugino his chief title to glory. Morelli's conclusion is that Raphael was the pupil of his friend and townsman during the period between 1495, when Timoteo came home from his studies under Francia, until 1500, when, already a tolerably accomplished painter, he entered the Peruginian studio; and that the oft-noted likeness between the work of the two was due to the boy of twelve having adopted the style of his friend of twenty-seven, rather than the reverse, as has been generally taken for granted.

"Now let me ask any unprejudiced and thinking student of art, is it seriously to be imagined that a talented artist like Timoteo, in his twenty-seventh year, after completing his years of study with Francia, would let himself be taken in hand and tutored by a boy of twelve? Is not exactly the opposite theory by far the likeliest?"

The argument is illustrated by facsimiles of various drawings, and Timoteo is shown to have displayed the characteristics which have caused him to be considered Raphael's pupil (and, in one case adduced, even caused one of his pictures to be accepted as Raphael's until documentary evidence was found which showed that it was Timoteo's) before Raphael's own style was formed and before he became a pupil of Perugino.

The study of Signor Morelli is certainly the most valuable contribution to the archaeology of Italian art which the modern scientific spirit has brought out, and causes but one regret—that its field has been so circumscribed.

English Poetesses. A Series of Critical Biographies with Illustrative Extracts. By Eric S. Robertson, M.A. Cassell & Co. 1883.

"THERE are not less than sixty women in our own day," says Mr. Robertson, "who have written verse which would have attracted great attention a century ago"; and although he immediately adds that "we are being punished for the increase of poems by the decrease of poetry," the mere number of women who now profess literature is very significant of the change that has taken place within a hundred years in the intellectual condition of the sex. Mr. Robertson has not confined his attention to living poetesses, but has given a biographical sketch of all who can be regarded even by the most indulgent as having obtained any distinction, from "the matchless Orinda," Katherine Philips, to the more brilliant of the shining ephemera of the present moment.

On reading the volume, one is particularly impressed by the shocking mortality of poetic reputations among women; it is almost infantine. Of most of these poetesses the present generation is practically ignorant, for their works have perished, while their names survive for a little. Aphra Behn is a scandal to the sex; Mrs. Piozzi, Hannah Cowley, Mrs. Smith, Mrs. Norton, Miss Smedley, only the bookworm devours; Lady Mary Montagu is known as a letter-writer, Mrs. More (alas for her thirty volumes!) as a very respectable moralist, Miss Baillie as a Scotchwoman, Miss Anna Seward, "the Swan of Lichfield," who "from her earliest days cherished the notion of becoming a songstress"; Mrs. Opie, of whom it is here said "dukes and princes, and even kings, cherished her friendship with affection"; L. E. L., "the English Sappho"; Mrs. Southey, "the Cowper of poetesses"—who reads them now? In fact, the comparative weakness of women in poetic composition has suffered a very severe exposure in this revivification of expiring mediocrities. A few exquisite lines of Mrs. Barbauld's, some half-dozen beautiful Scotch ballads that have practically become anonymous, George Eliot's

great hymn, and the uneven and inartistic works of Mrs. Browning are all of undoubtedly permanent worth that women have contributed to the second great age of English poetry. Mrs. Hemans and Miss Procter, touching as many of their compositions are, are receding names, and of Miss Rossetti and Miss Ingelow it is too soon to speak. Mr. Robertson himself is convinced, by the force of what seems his unpremeditated demonstration, that some general reason must underlie this ineffectiveness of woman's song, and he attempts an explanation; but as this, like nearly all the original work inserted in the interstices of his compilation, is superficial and commonplace, we shall not examine it. Of his thought and style some judgment may be made from a remark or two which light up his pages with unintended humor. Thus, of Mrs. Hemans he very truly says: "Her love-poetry may be said to be that of the domestic affections rather than that of the elective affinities by which the sublimest souls, with peril to themselves, grope for each other"; surely a natural characteristic, since we are informed that, "under the sheltering wing of her mother, Mrs. Hemans brought into the world a family of five sons." Sometimes, however, the author is altogether too spiritually profound. What does he mean, for example, by saying that "every birth is a try-back after innocence"? It is only as a convenient repertory of facts that his book is valuable.

Our American Cousins. By W. E. Adams. London: Walter Scott. 1883.

IF we go into any considerable public library we shall find rows of shelves covered with the works of American tourists in Europe. They were for the most part written from twenty-five to fifty years ago, when foreign travel was confined to comparatively few persons. To write now of an ordinary tour abroad would be very much like describing a trip from New York to Philadelphia. The tide has turned the other way, and it is the European traveller in the United States who gives his impressions to the world. But while the American traveller is attracted by art and architecture and the varied local color which history has given to the several nations, the European devotes his attention to two quite different problems: (1) What is the meaning of the political institutions under which this great democratic republic has grown to be such a figure in the world? and (2) What sort of homes are awaiting the vast swarm of emigrants, not by any means now limited to the poorer classes, who are pouring across the ocean? One reads with something like amusement the nearly uniform answer to the first question, whether proceeding from men like Spencer and Freeman, or our less ambitious author—which is, in substance, We give it up! As to the social question, the former class, while acknowledging the attentions which they receive, naturally miss the gradations of class which are suited to their tastes and habits. The hearty optimism of a man of the people is much more likely to influence the mind of a well-to-do citizen of Scotland or North England who, with a large and growing family, is wavering as to the chance of bettering their prospects in the new world. As the present book is a republication of letters to the *Newcastle Weekly Chronicle*, they probably reached this class.

From his rosy views we concluded that the writer was a young man till we found him greeting a friend with whom he was engaged in political movements in England a quarter of a century ago. He goes so far as to say that hotel clerks are always civil and obliging, and is the first person whom we ever heard speak a good word for the boys who sell books, candy, prize

packages, and cigars in the cars, describing them as an "exceedingly useful institution." As there must, however, be a background to every picture, he has a chapter on murders, including reference to Guiteau and his trial, to the James boys, and to the general lawlessness, not even confined to the frontier States. In a footnote he quotes the remark of his friend W. J. Linton, which seems to us to include more political philosophy, as applied to the United States, than the rest of the volume, or indeed than many volumes which have been written—namely, that our difficulty is "not in the occurrence of crime, but in the escape from punishment through laxity of law." The key to so much which puzzles foreigners among us is, that our people have not yet discovered that it is of not much use to make laws unless provision is also made for their enforcement; and that the science of administration, almost wholly neglected, is the one thing necessary to give to our Government, local as well as national, the assurance of permanent stability.

The chapter on the disposition of the public lands echoes a foreboding, which seems to be common among foreigners, that it is laying the foundation for a landed aristocracy. We cannot see any great occasion for alarm. Mr. Smith, the Liberal member for Liverpool, in an article in the *Contemporary*, points out that all the countries which have made most progress in civilization are just those where private ownership in land prevails, and that the most miserable conditions of society are those where land is held in common. However that may be elsewhere, our case is exceptional in two respects, first, that a simple system of transfer makes land just as salable as any other property; and, second, that the possession of land as such carries with it no special distinction, either social or political. Large farms are held in the newer States and Territories, because, with modern machinery, they pay; but we suspect that the tendency in the older States, which time will extend to the new, is to separation rather than aggregation of land-holding. The policy, so much condemned, of land-grants to railways has also two sides. In the first place, the grant is of alternate sections, so that the remainder receives a full equivalent in value either for the Government or its grantees; secondly, the railway cares nothing whatever for the political or social advantages of land-holding, nor is it tempted to hold for future value, but is anxious to sell as quickly and to as many people as possible, because the business thereby brought is of more value

than the land itself; and lastly, the shareholders desire only that the lands shall be sold, and the results reach their pockets as quickly as possible in a money form. Railway feudalism is one of the smallest dangers that this country has to dread.

The topics which we have selected will show the character of the book, and we will add that it at once is entertaining and affords a soothing titillation to the vanity of the true-blooded American.

Brief History of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern Peoples; with Some Account of Their Movements, Institutions, Arts, Manners, and Customs. A. S. Barnes & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. 600.

THE series of "brief histories," published by Messrs. Barnes & Co., has earned a high reputation as school text-books. Of the whole series, the history of ancient peoples, forming the first part of the work before us, is probably the best, and we are inclined to think it the best ancient history for the common schools. The modern part suffers somewhat, we must think, in the comparison. In the first place, it is out of proportion. Taking into consideration the needs of American school-boys, nine-tenths of whom will never study or perhaps read any other history, the decided preponderance ought to be given to modern history proper—that is, the period since the Reformation. We should say that these four centuries ought to have fully half the space, and the last hundred years at least half of this. But, in this volume of 600 pages, modern history begins on page 423, and the French Revolution on page 536. This is, however, only an illustration of the thoroughly unpractical way in which history is usually taught in our schools.

The defect in question is at the bottom of the defect next to be mentioned. It is impossible, in the few pages given here, to present a view of mediæval and modern history at once complete and graphic. The work in detail is very well done, but it undertakes to do too much. Boys of fourteen need not be told about every king and every battle; a few leading characters and events should be selected, and these should be impressed upon the memory by skilful narration and careful depiction of character. Here again we do not criticise this book, but the prevalent school methods.

Many of the illustrations are mere pretty pictures, of neither historical nor educational value; there are, however, many excellent maps and portraits, and occasionally a picture which does something more than please the eye, espe-

cially in ancient history. A made-up picture is as likely as not to teach what is untrue; as, for example, the Pope crowning Charlemagne (p. 334), with the triple tiara on his head—which was not adopted by the popes until the fourteenth century. The maps are well selected and instructive; but the map of the great voyages of discovery, etc. (p. 426), is hard to understand. It would seem to show the present colonial possessions of Great Britain, etc., and therefore gives the British color to Canada; but the French color embraces the territory west of the Mississippi, including Oregon.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Carey, Alice. *Clove nook; or, Recollections of Our Neighborhood in the West.* 2 vols. First and Second Series. New edition. A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$2.50.
 Disosway, E. T. *Sydney, the Knight: an Historic Tale of Rustic and Religious Life in England in the Sixteenth Century.* Philadelphia: American Sunday-school Union.
 Herve, Rev. G. W. *Manual of Revivals.* Funk & Wagnalls. \$1.25.
 Hinsdale, R. A. *Schools and Studies.* Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
 Hollis, E. B. *Cecil's Summer.* T. Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.25.
 Hopkin, S. B. *The Medical Directory of Philadelphia, for 1884.* Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. \$1.50.
 Howells, W. D. *The Register: a Farce.* Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
 Jacob, Rev. E. A. *The Lord's Supper Historically Considered.* London: Henry Frowde. \$1.
 Knight, Dr. C. H. *A Year-Book of Surgery for 1883.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
 Laveleye, Emile de. *The Elements of Political Economy.* Translated. Introduction and supplementary chapter by F. W. Taussig. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
 Leland, C. G. *Hans Breitmann's Ballads.* Complete edition in one volume. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. \$4.
 Lincoln, Jeanie G. *Her Washington Season.* Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
 McLaren, W. S. B. *Spinning Woolen and Worsted.* Cassell & Co. \$2.
 Neubaur, L. *Die Sage vom ewigen Juden.* B. Westermann & Co.
 Newman, Rev. J. P. *Christianity Triumphant.* Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
 Oliphant, Mrs. *The Wizard's Son: a Novel.* Franklin Square Library. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
 Seaver, E. P. and Watton, G. A. *Logarithmic and Trigonometric Tables.* Philadelphia: J. H. Butler.
 Sheppard, N. *Darwinism, Stated by Darwin Himself.* D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.
 Statesman's Year Book, for 1884. Macmillan & Co. \$3.
 Symington, A. J. *Hints to Our Boys.* With an introduction by Lyman Abbott, D.D. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
 Taussig, F. W. *Protection to Young Industries, as applied in the United States.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
 Thirty Thousand Thoughts: being Extracts covering a Comprehensive Circle of Religious and Allied Topics. Sections I-V. Funk & Wagnalls. \$3.50.
 Topographical Surveying. Including articles by G. J. Specht, C.E., Prof. A. S. Hardy, Prof. John B. McMaster, and H. F. Walling. Science Series. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
 Tuke, Dr. D. H. *Illustrations of the Influence of the Mind upon the Body in Health and Disease.* Second American edition. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea's Son & Co.
 Wentworth & Hill's Examination Manuals. No. II.—Algebra. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents, 25 cts.
 Wheeler, E. J. *Pulpit and Grave: a volume of Funeral Sermons and Addresses from Leading Pulpits of America, England, Germany, and France.* Funk & Wagnalls. \$1.50.
 Young, R. *Light in Lands of Darkness: a Record of Missionary Labor.* Cassell & Co. \$2.
 Zola, E. *The Joys of Life.* Translated. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.

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